

LEND A HAND.

A RECORD OF PROGRESS.

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As we pass the period when the Indian Associations hold their annual meetings, we are well aware that their active officers meet from their members the question whether the same efforts are needed now as were needed when these associations were called into existence.

It is therefore as well to put on paper the reply, that if the same efforts are not needed, other efforts are. In truth, the mere success of the friends of the Indian races in some directions calls for new arrangements, and a well-instructed public opinion which may be sufficient to maintain the ground which has been gained.

As we congratulate ourselves on a healthy public opinion on the Indian questions, as shown in Congress and in the Department of the Interior, we must remember that public opinion is not absolute in administration. The Indian Commission had for many years to do battle in Washington with the Indian Ring. Such a ring as this is like the snake of the national proverb,—it may be scotched when it is not killed. The Indian Ring consisted—perhaps it is fair to say consists—of the rich contractors who made money from the

supplies under the treaties. The object, on the other hand, of the Indian Commission was to make the contracts on terms as favorable to the Indians as possible. With a well-organized Indian Ring in possession of the inside agencies at Washington, every step of reform was difficult.

When a gentleman from the frontier came on to the East, in Mr. Hayes's administration, to arouse feeling in behalf of the Poncas, who were exiled from their homes, he opened a bank account at one of the large Washington banks. The bank had no objection to receiving his deposits. But on his first visit there afterwards, he was told that he must close his account. The observant Indian Ring had given notice there that, if he had an account with that bank, their account was to be withdrawn. This anecdote illustrates the vigilance of the boycott which was maintained in those early days. The ring had very large power in the agencies of the press. It could circulate slanders against public men, which flew across the country, "while Truth was putting on her boots." And many a pure man, who had simply defended right and attacked wrong, found himself abused in the most unexpected quarters, because he had given offence to the ring in some of its underground proceedings.

Now, one is glad to say that this sort of interference with administration has been stopped. But it is stopped only by that watchful care of the rights of the Indians which has been organized by the Indian Associations. There is an intelligent public opinion in the matter. But this public opinion, all the same, must be maintained; and it can be maintained only by the sort of vigilance from which it grew.

THE subject of the gradual civilization of these tribes is as interesting as ever. As we know the detail of the necessary work better, such detail gives it more interest than it ever had. We are expecting from them, in a single generation or less, the advance which our own ancestors have been making in nineteen centuries since they were spearing fish or

hunting wild boars. Every step of such progress is interesting, and at every step the assistance of friends may be useful. We are to help the tribes without petting them. We are to teach them, if we can, how to help themselves.

It is always observed, in any Indian Association, that if one member makes a visit to some reservation, and becomes personally acquainted with its affairs, he comes back with information and inspiration which quickens all the other members. And it may be said, in general, that the concentration of effort of any one association upon certain distinct objects, which it may assume as its special charge, is almost necessary for efficient work. This is certain, that such special connection with definite objects adds greatly to the interest of the meetings.

A new interest has been awakened in a matter of literary history connected with the great Algonquin race,—to which a very large proportion of the Indian races belong. Mr. Gilfillan, a most skilful and successful co-adjutor with Bishop Whipple among the Ojibwas of the Northwest, observed some years ago that the Lord's prayer, as rendered by John Eliot, in the Massachusetts language, is still intelligible when read to an Ojibwa Indian. It had been well known that the Chippeway or Ojibwa language belonged to the same stock as that of our Massachusetts tribes. But the absolute difference of the spelling adopted by Rev. Sherman Hall in his translation of the New Testament into Chippeway and that used by Eliot, had made an arbitrary difference between the languages as presented to the eye. Thus Hall spells the word for *mountain* thus, *u-i-j-i-u-i-i*, while in the same passage, the Sermon on the Mount, Eliot spells it *w-a-l-t-c-h-u*. Even an intelligent reader may be excused if he does not at once observe that they are the same word. But whoever will read the two aloud will notice the real identity of the two.

The antiquarians have supposed that Eliot's Bible is a monument of a dead language. But Mr. Gilfillan's observa-

tion showed that an intelligent Ojibwa might work out its sense, much as a Dutchman could work out Luther's Bible. And no little interest has been excited by this observation.

We have, at this office, a few copies of the Edinburgh reprint of Eliot's catechism, which we shall be glad to send to any persons in the Northwest who are interested in this comparison of language.

EDWARD E. HALE.

TRANSPLANTING TO COUNTRY HOMES.

BY JOHN VISHER.

The potato patches cultivated by hundreds of poor families in almost all of our large cities during 1895 have demonstrated the willingness of people to turn to the soil and to the simpler modes of productive employment when the way is open. But a more radical work, demonstrating the same general fact, so often disputed, that the poor will leave the cities and go to farm life and to cultivating the soil has been conducted in Chicago. We will briefly outline it :

REPORT OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR AND TRANSPORTATION.

Transplanted persons in 1894, 20; in 1895, 266 in families.				
"	"	"	"	133 mothers with children.
"	"	"	12:	" 30 juveniles (orphans).
"	"	"	40;	" 82 single men and women.
"	"	"	72:	" 511 total number.
Total cost	"	\$346:	"	\$766.
Per capita cost	"	\$5.00:	"	\$1.50.

These disbursements were, in 1895, for rent, \$240; for incidentals, printing, postage, transportation, etc., \$127; and for office and other help, \$399; the secretary having given without compensation all his time to the work, at least for eleven months of the year. This also accounts for the

difference in the per capita cost between 1895 and 1894, when he received \$25 a week.

These 500 transplanted persons came in the majority of cases from Chicago's charitable institutions, or were referred by benevolent individuals. They were in need of relief. Many had drifted into the city from farming communities and were unable to get back. All were without work. On account of the hard times, several institutions were forced to submit to the law of the survival of the fittest, and closed their doors, turning their wards over to the Bureau to be transplanted into more normal surroundings in farm homes. One of these institutions was an industrial home for boys. All the boys were placed out, being of serviceable age, and they are all doing well. The oldest, a lad of fifteen, is said to be growing fat in the Dakotas, having gained twenty pounds in four months.

Another orphan was a farmer's lad who had come into the city seeking work but finding want. When his money was all spent he gladly went to a farm opening and worked until winter, saving \$180, when he went to school. Still another lad, a half orphan, still in his teens, had been at work in a foundry, but longed for the life of a farmer. He was sent out, saving \$70 in seven months, and is to work the place on shares next spring.

At first the openings were found through the free advertising the press gave. At least as many as two thousand different papers have given notices of the work, several more than a column's length. But the best advertising the work has had has been the work itself. The very first family sent out into central Illinois brought calls for two other families and one single man. The closing day of 1895 brought four openings from communities which had seen the people sent out. Openings for a widow and an orphan were secured through a family sent to Urbana, Maryland, as "they give excellent satisfaction and are happy and contented."

Many of these transplanted people are so well pleased

with their new life that they make room in their new homes for their friends. One such had bravely pioneered it into Florida. He is now sending funds for all his friends, having secured a dearly coveted boon, a bit of mother earth for himself and them, and has put up a little house with his own hands. One family paved the way for another in the same way into Colorado, having located on government land in a fertile valley, where they can irrigate. Several have gone into the lumbering regions in Northern Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota.

It is an every-day occurrence for some farmer to drop into the office, 167 Dearborn Street, room 719, having read or heard of the Bureau's work, and being in need of help. Thus a farmer came in from Apple River, Ill., to dispose of a car load of stock and take out a man. He selected a young German, and wrote a month later :

"I must say I was much pleased with the manner in which the Bureau is conducted and the class of men I found at the office--intelligent, worthy men. Your Bureau is a worthy object, and whoever assists in its support is doing God's service, and will have his reward. Strangers cannot get work when travelling. They are called tramps. I am well pleased with our man. He is a good man and seems contented.

JOSEPH VARTY."

Farmers' wives have an abundance of room and food, and are therefore very generally willing to board a child if by so doing they can get the services of the mother. Many widowed or deserted mothers were accordingly transplanted into farm homes. One, the mother of two charming children, formerly a school teacher, was placed with her little ones in the home of a widower whose children needed training. There are misfits occasionally, but complaint has come of only three or four out of the one hundred and thirty-three mothers with children, and at the worst nothing more serious happens than in the case concerning whom the following letter was received the closing day of the year: "Nearly five weeks have passed since my receipt of your last favor. The very next day I was thrown from the buggy, breaking

my arm and dislocating my wrist. You may be sure Mrs. L—— had a place for some time then, and I think by the time I do not need her, there will be other places she can get. We were thankful indeed she was here. She was just the one for the place. I tell her 'it is an ill wind that blows nobody good.' (She had left the place she was sent to, unwilling to work there for \$1.50 a week.)

Of the eighty-two single men and women transplanted, one was a city missionary, whose funds and strength being quite spent, sought the change of work she would find in a farm house. Another gladly embraced the opportunity to leave the city and "help" a busy house-wife in the country, where her spirit and labors are so appreciated that she is given music lessons and loved as an own daughter.

What would be the most difficult half of the work, the finding of the openings, the press of the country has done free of charge. Another serious item of expense, the cost of transportation, the railroads, without exception, reduce by half, and the farmers who employ these transplanted persons assume the other half, advancing their wages to that extent. The current expenses of office rentage, help, stationery, postage, etc., far-sighted and broadly philanthropic persons, bankers, and business men cheerfully assume, "considering such transplanting and help to self-help a necessity of existing social and industrial conditions." When the work becomes better known the funds are sure to come to conduct it on a scale commensurate with the needs.

SECRET ORGANIZATIONS IN SOCIETY.

BY JOS. V. COLLINS.

From very early times secret societies of one kind and another have flourished under a great variety of names. Of them all, perhaps the guilds of the middle ages and the Freemasons are best known in history, though it should be

added that the element of secrecy in many of the former was very slight. To-day, as Masons, Odd Fellows, labor organizations, benefit societies, college fraternities, etc., they are playing a most important part in our social development. The church and press aside, it is doubtful whether there is any other influence at work among us so potent as that of the secret societies. Formed as they usually are with other ends in view than that of mere social intercourse, it would be natural to expect to find in them, along with much that is good, mischievous tendencies, and in some at least, objectionable dogmas.

The readiness with which men unite in social organizations seems to make the act almost instinctive. No class becomes so cultured and developed but that a club is needed, and none so poor but that it has its lodge. However, for the greater success of the organization among the non-affluent classes of society, other elements besides the mere social one are needed to add stability, and these are usually secret councils and forms, together with some business consideration, as the promise of aid in distress, or the chance of taking out a benefit policy, or the like, what the business consideration is usually determining the character of the society. Also, it may be safely asserted that at the present time the element of secrecy is not insisted on on account of any mysterious secrets, such as Pythagoras of the priests of Egypt communicated to the initiated, but with the sole object of holding the organization together, and drawing in new members. As evidence of this one may point to the clubs of the leisure class in which the element of secrecy has almost entirely disappeared. It is doubtful if the mere element of secrecy, speaking generally, is of much importance one way or the other as being either beneficial or injurious to the individual members. It is possibly a little provoking to outsiders, particularly curious people, to know that they must be kept in the dark on all questions involving members and the secrets of the order; but their opinions or feelings have little to do with the society itself. The social inter-

course, on the other hand, ought to be, and probably is, helpful to the great multitude of those who are members of secret organizations. The bad effects then must come from some other source than the secrecy or the social intercourse.

Of all the different kind of secret organizations, those of the Masons and Odd Fellows probably contain fewer objectionable features than any of the others. The support of sick members and of those in need of aid is a wise provision. The world is coming every day more and more to see the need of taking all reasonable precautions against accidents and misfortunes of every possible kind, and in this education some of the secret orders are taking a leading part along with the insurance companies, savings banks, building associations, etc. But the mistake of classing the insurance element in the lodges as charity is all too common with their over-zealous defenders, many even going so far as to frame invidious comparisons between the charity of the lodges and the charity of the churches. Whatever the latter may be in individual cases, the former is not charity, and it is only a species of mockery against that virtue to say that it is. For, as a rule, the lodges take into their membership the pick of their respective communities, on much the same principle that insurance companies take good risks, and then expect their members to pay their dues as they may be needed for the various purposes. Whenever, therefore, a member gets sick or needs aid, he feels free to call on his fellows to care for him, knowing that if he were well and another sick, he would be called for a like service himself. Not so with charity from the church. What a person gives to the church is used either to pay the pastor and the expenses of the church, the giver in turn being supposed to receive a *quid pro quo*; or, to benevolent objects pure and simple, the money being given and the service rendered for purposes whence no return can ever be expected. When, therefore, the church or community gives aid to the poor or afflicted it is charity, and great delicacy is always needed to avoid giving offence, making the act in this country at least a difficult

one. What the benevolent order deserves credit for, therefore, is the business arrangement which is of so great value to the community, and it would pay the church to consider carefully how she may best aid in working out the problem involved.

So explicit a statement as that in the preceding paragraph would hardly be justified here, did it not lead up to another question which we wish to consider with some care, viz., the exclusive and antagonistic element prominent in secret organizations as a class. There is, we believe, a written or unwritten law (usually the former) in practically all of them, that as between a brother and an outsider, other things being equal, members are to give the preference to the brother in securing for him a position, or work, or trade, or social standing, or anything that may be for his advantage. Now when this rule is faithfully carried out, which fortunately is seldom the case, there is only one thing for the rest of the community to do, and that is to organize itself into other societies of the same kind. This results in leaving a residue, as a rule the least fortunate part, unorganized and out in the cold. On the principle that every man should look out for himself and the devil take the hindmost, this arrangement is all right; but from an unselfish standpoint it is all wrong. It results in the case of the labor organizations in the division of workmen into two classes, union men and scabs, the latter being little better than thieves and robbers in the eyes of union men, though in outward appearance and in inner character they are quite like those who so despise them. On the other hand, among the wealthy classes it leads to the formation of trusts (secret organizations, though not commonly classed as such), of the very harshest and cruelest type, since made on the strictly business basis only.

With the extreme examples alone in mind, and without the introduction of any others, may not the principle with assurance be laid down, that formal subscription to any article or clause which works, or is liable to work, injustice in trade or otherwise to other members of the commonwealth

unknown to them, should be forbidden by law. Natural affection, or regard, or pity, are ample motives to induce men to give their aid to those around them as they may have opportunity, without the introduction of any artificial influence. Whenever by strict enforcement such compacts are brought out in their true light, the people are quick to perceive the social fallacy underlying them and to discard them. If present tendencies are any indication, the day seems to be nearly over when laborers taking the place of others, who refuse the wages they are willing to accept, will be interfered with in the free discharge of the duties they assume. But with regard to the trusts, it is not thought for an instant that such a law would be of any avail against them. Though the crime against the common interest is much the same in both cases, it is evident that only the most specific and drastic legislation will reach them, difficult as it may be in theory to enact such laws. What the reform noted above, whether secured by legislation or by common consent of those concerned, would accomplish, however, would be the removal to a large extent of the popular distrust of secret societies. Twice, once in this country and once in England, popular uprisings against the Masons have occurred. In both instances a well-defined fear of secret machinations against the common welfare was at the bottom of the distrust. In both cases it was claimed that the state was putting itself in jeopardy in harboring societies of the kind. There has never been any foundation for this assertion, but there has been foundation for the belief that injustice has frequently been caused to the outside community by the rules of these orders; and, for the sake of the peace and quiet of society in general, precautions in the shape of wise laws ought to be enacted which would serve to remove unnecessary and foolish suspicion.

The college fraternities furnish perhaps the best illustration of the peculiar advantages and defects of the whole secret society system. A college is often called a little world, and so it is. And here, in the virgin soil of callow

youth, the secret society has come to flourish as exuberantly as the banyan tree of the tropics. The average collegian regards his little fraternity organization as occupying ground somewhat higher in importance and eminence than any of the other secret orders, and, indeed, often higher than the union of the states itself. In the college where young persons are brought together away from their homes, the social side of the fraternity life is a valuable part in the student's training. There seems to be only one objectionable feature in it, namely, that, owing to the vows taken, young persons are frequently brought together in close and fixed fellowship, who afterwards find that they have little in common. But the real objectionable feature in the college fraternity, as it exists to-day with a few honorable exceptions, is the spirit of exclusiveness and partisanship which it engenders in the minds of the students. In most institutions, including some of the strongest universities, the fraternities are practically political parties without platform or principles save this one, that each organization is to strive to secure by hook or crook for its own members as many of the offices and college plums generally as possible. That this condition of things is not a healthy one will hardly be questioned. Back to our young men in college come some of our shrewdest, most astute, and successful politicians, many of them congressmen and senators, telling the students that the training they received in the college fraternity has stood them in good stead in their political battles on the wider and more difficult fields of partisan politics. Being reminded of the powerful influence exerted by our college men in state and national affairs, one wonders why the reformers of the extreme partisan character of our politics have not before this addressed themselves to the purification of one of the fountain heads of this naughtiness, rather than to the conversion of the confirmed sharpers in active harness.

Whether the popularity of the secret organizations will continue to grow, or whether it will sooner or later begin to decline is a difficult question to answer. No doubt the ele-

ment of mystery which surrounds some organizations will depreciate in value as a drawing card as a wider dissemination of knowledge makes it evident that their so-called secrets are of not much consequence, and that many of their rituals deal too much in glittering generalities and lack real meaning. Much in their customs also savors too largely of parade and mere ceremony. So long as this display serves to satisfy a popular desire for show, there will doubtless be a demand for these societies. However, should the popular taste change in this particular, and the crudities in some of the other features become generally apparent, they may decline in importance. Certainly some of the benefit orders are coming into disrepute, and unless some state oversight and control can be exercised over their financial affairs, they are likely to go into a rapid decline. But we are reminded that the secret orders generally have proved themselves pretty stable organizations, and are likely to continue in existence for long to come.

It is to be sincerely hoped that the narrow and selfish conception of their mission, now so common, may soon be replaced by a broad humanitarianism which recognizes the common brotherhood of men.

INDIAN AFFAIRS.*

The reports noted below, together with that of the Indian Commissioners for the year, afford a very complete view of the position, needs, and prospects of the Indians, and give, on the whole, great encouragement to their well-wishers. The Executive Committee of the Indian Rights Association says:

* The Thirteenth Annual Report of the Executive Committee of the Indian Rights Association.

The Latest Phase of the Southern Ute Question. A report by Francis E. Leupp, Washington Agent of the Indian Rights Association.

Report of the Superintendent of Indian Schools.

"The outlook for the future, it seems to us, was never more hopeful than now. Both the Secretary of the Interior and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs are fully alive to the needs of the service, and have done much to improve it."

And the report quotes in corroboration the following passage from the report of the Honorable Secretary of the Interior:

"In my last annual report I dwelt upon the necessity of permanency in the service, and I stated that it would be possible to develop a competent, permanent, non-partisan Indian service. The classified service applied at that time to the superintendents and teachers in the schools, but the Indian Bureau was not prepared to recommend its extension, on account of the doubt felt as to the possibility of obtaining, through the machinery of the civil service, a sufficient number of competent employees, with the peculiar qualifications required, to fill the probable demand.

"I am gratified to state that the Commissioner now agrees with me in the opinion that the subordinate force has reached a standard of efficiency where no injury to the service would result from an extension of the civil service regulations over all of the places not excluded by law. It is, however, also important that the office of agent should be made a continuous one, and that the head of the entire Bureau should be free from unnecessary change. To secure this requisite permanence of the service, I submit the following recommendations:

"First. That instead of a single commissioner, the Indian service be placed in charge of three commissioners, two of them to be civilians appointed from different political parties and one to be a detailed army officer.

"Second. That the tenure of office of an Indian agent shall be conditioned alone upon the faithful discharge of his duties, and that appointments and removals be made by the President upon the recommendation of the three Commissioners of Indian Affairs.

"Third. That the classified service be extended over all the subordinate positions, both at the agencies and at the schools."

These recommendations cannot be too strongly endorsed by all Indian workers, and we trust that Congress will speedily give them the force of law.

A very clear and connected account is given in this pamphlet of the trouble among the Bannocks last summer, in which the Indians were proved to have been entirely in the right, and in which the press almost universally, much to its credit, took their side, a thing that would have been almost impossible ten years ago, and which clearly marks the rising tide of justice.

Mr. Leupp, the able and efficient agent in Washington of the Indian Rights Association, makes a full and valuable statement of the state of things among the Southern Utes, to whom we have been trying for years to secure their homes from the greed of the surrounding whites. His account of the usefulness of an honest and intelligent trader is very striking:

"One thing which any visitor to the Southern Ute Reservation must note, is the suggestion there found of the possibilities of a post-trader's store as an instrument of civilization. The only storekeeper for several years past who has had faith enough in the stability of things on the reservation to take any enterprising step is the present one, George H. Kraus. The building which his predecessors had used he discarded as too small and inconvenient; and, allowing it to remain as an L, he put up a new and very creditable main building, which he stocked, not with the mere necessities of subsistence known to the Indians, but with a liberal supply of white men's goods. Soaps of the better sort, hair and toothbrushes, tables, cups and saucers, bedsteads and mattresses, attractive shawls for the women, and cheap but neat-looking blue flannel suits for the men, were among the features of his display. He took as much pains with their arrangement on his shelves and in his show-cases as if they

had been intended to capture the best custom of a white village. The effect promptly showed itself. Curiosity was developed among his Indian customers, especially among the women, who are by no means unintelligent, as a rule. To stimulate this instinct, and also to satisfy it in a measure, he fell into the habit of leaving the doors of his living quarters open, so that all could look in and see what use he made of the various conveniences of toilet and table. It was not long before one of the more inquisitive of his visitors was moved to buy some of the same things for her own tepee. This excited emulation in another, and so on. Then he began to turn the tide of fashion to still more profitable account by refusing to sell a mattress to an Indian who had not a bedstead to put it on, or a plate, cup, and saucer where there was no table. Of course, in nearly every case the bedstead and the table had to come out of his own stock, but the Indian who bought them was lifted off the ground by the purchase, so that the profit to the storekeeper's till was at the same time a modest investment in civilization. More than one Indian brave, who has declined to exchange blanket and leggings for the musty-fusty, dirt-colored, uninviting garments which the government doles out to him on issue-day, has come into the trader's store, bought a blue flannel suit, retired to the back room and put it on, and walked proudly out to exhibit himself to his fellows.

"There was not a sewing-machine on the reservation. The storekeeper bought one and learned how to use it. Then he turned field-matron on his own account, and invited all the squaws who wished to come in and see him sew. Every one of his visitors, of course, wanted a chance to play with the new toy. They all caught the idea promptly, and, at the expense of a few broken needles, he soon had the whole female population of the neighborhood of the agency flocking to the store, buying calico, and making it up into new gowns.

"A favorite pastime with the Indians of all sexes, ages, and degrees is card-playing for small stakes. By way of

giving them the same mental stimulus and diverting their taste from 'Monte,' the storekeeper bought some cheap checker-boards and taught a few of the boys how to play. The boards are always on a shelf or a window-seat within easy reach, and the boys sit for hours in pairs on a store-bench, playing game after game, always good-tempered, and taking alternate defeat and victory with equal philosophy; but they have thus far been sufficiently absorbed in the intricacies of the new amusement not to care for staking anything on its results."

Dr. Hailmann's report, as superintendent of education, is full of interesting points and suggestions. We can quote only a few scattered paragraphs, and advise every one to read the whole, if they would see the difficulties under which the work is carried on, the success it meets, and the hopes and prospects it unfolds:

"In no way, however, are we justified in falling into the error of those who surrender to drawbacks and difficulties, failures and backslidings, and claim that because of these the education of the Indian is a failure. I have listened to most touching and unquestionably sincere declamations condemning the cruelty which educates an Indian child, renders him sensitive to considerations of decency and morality, gives him advanced aims and comparatively high purposes, and then returns him to a reservation, to an environment which is indifferent or hostile to these things, and which practically compels him to relapse into savagery.

"Now, in all this there is much truth. But the cruelty, it should be remembered, lies not in the education that is given the Indian youth, but in his return to uncongenial environment and in the failure to provide well-directed, efficient measures for securing improved environment for the educated youth, in the failure to protect him against the savagery of the old Indians, and in not affording him opportunities and incentives to hold fast to the aspirations and to practice the arts which his education has given him."

"There is right here a promising field of labor for patriot-

ic philanthropists and missionaries who take a special interest in the civilization and uplifting of the Indians. They might, with profit, establish in the states and districts inhabited by Indians' agencies or posts, whose duty it should be to enlighten the white people in these states and districts concerning the true character of the Indian, as well as concerning the duties of the whites toward these new citizens; to interest themselves in the personal welfare of returned educated young Indian men and women; to secure for these, if possible, suitable employment in white communities; to encourage the establishment in the vicinity of Indian homes of industries that will afford employment to Indian workers; to secure from local courts full justice to Indians, both in matters of penalty and protection; to hold in check the conscienceless land hunger of unscrupulous men, and in every other way to overcome unworthy prejudices against Indians on the part of white settlers, as well as the stolid fear and distrust of the Indian in his intercourse with whites.

"In all these efforts sentiment and personal contact play so important a part that philanthropic and missionary organizations, unhampered by any considerations outside of their definite purpose, and yet in full sympathy with the wider aims of the government, can accomplish more than government agencies with their complicated and somewhat heavy machinery. Efforts made in this direction by Miss Frances C. Sparhawk, of the Indian Industries League, by a group of generous philanthropists at Santee, by the Jesuit fathers at Cœur d'Aléne and at the Flathead Agency, by Miss Sybil Carter at White Earth, and other similar work elsewhere, have yielded results which place such enterprises beyond the stage of tentative experiment. Success is assured wherever devotion, common sense, courage, and faith unite in similar efforts."

"There can be no doubt that the stress of work on the part of the schools should be placed upon industrial and manual training rather than upon literary advancement. It is chiefly through the industrial arts and manual skill that

the Indian is to be brought to that degree of self-help which shall render him independent of government support in the work of self-preservation and of the maintenance of a family. To put him in possession of these arts and to inculcate in him a spirit of work is the purpose of the industrial training of our schools.

“Of course he is to acquire the arts of reading and writing, inasmuch as these are indispensable in his daily intercourse with others, and inasmuch as the practice of these arts will enable him to acquire the garnered knowledge of the race concerning things of nature, of human art, of history, and of political and religious life. But advanced literary training is not needed for these purposes, and in Indian schools it may become relatively a hindrance rather than a help by drawing away the pupil's attention from things which are indispensable to him, while at the same time he is incapable of deriving from these studies any real benefits. So-called higher education should be confined to those who can derive real benefits therefrom, both as students and in subsequent life pursuits.”

“Wherever kindergartens have been introduced in boarding schools, they exercise a most salutary and helpful influence upon the entire work of the school. The Indian children enter into the work and games with gratifying zest and intelligence. Their absorbing interest in these games and in the work causes them to lose sight of themselves and of each other, as it were, and consequently the time-honored shyness and reticence of the Indian have no opportunity to manifest themselves. Having no ridicule and no strained criticism to fear, they express their ideas freely and acquire the English idiom with astonishing rapidity and correctness. At the same time these kindergartens have aided me materially in my efforts to base the entire work of the schools upon the practical common-sense principles of the kindergarten methods of procedure. Thus the school is learning to add to its instruction the art of exercising, developing, and training

power; to supplement its teaching with actual work in which the teaching finds practical application."

"Much thought should be given to the treatment of dining rooms and dormitories. Mere surface order is not enough. There should be genuine respect and affection for these places on the children's part. They should genuinely desire to keep them clean and to make them cheery. Nor is mere supervisory watchfulness sufficient, but in the dormitory and at the mess table the presence and example of respected and beloved employees who share dormitory and table, or at least mess room, with the children is indispensable for full success.

"It is a real joy to visit these departments in a school whose employees have gotten near enough to the children to recognize the force of these considerations. The heart is filled with gratitude in the contemplation of the unselfish devotion that comes to these noble natures who have learned to esteem inner humanity as superior to all matters of external distinction.

"Some trusted employee sleeps in the children's dormitory in a place partitioned off by curtains, or at least in a communicating room to which in case of need every child has easy access. Pictures relieve the monotony of the walls and direct the children's thoughts to pleasing and elevating subjects. The treatment of furniture, window curtains, and beds invites respect, and imparts to the room an atmosphere of cheerful comfort.

"Similarly in the dining room, the employees have joined the children either at separate tables or conveniently distributed among them. In some instances, boys and girls are seated at the several tables, large and small at the same table, making the impression of a number of families eating in the same room. Here, too, suitable pictures on the walls, sprays of flowers or grass on the tables, and other devices give the room an air of simple and sincere refinement which pleases and elevates the minds of the children."

MARRIED VAGABONDS.*

BY MISS MARY E. RICHMOND.

I have ventured to give this title to my paper, because I am anxious to bring the *man* of the neglected family out of that retirement—behind wife and children—into which he has so discreetly withdrawn. A great deal has been written about the single vagabond. His nomadic habits have been described by specialists; and some have even ventured to turn tramp and take the road, in order to secure data at first hand for their studies. No specialist, however, has been able to study the married vagabond in the same way. He is well protected from scientific scrutiny,—too well protected. It has been my fortune to know individually a considerable number of both the single and the married fraternity, and I confess to a preference for the former. It is true that the tramp is a barbarian, openly at war with society; but, then, he is not so prompt to claim from society the privileges and protection which she so willingly extends to the head of a family. In short, he is not such a cowardly, unenterprising creature.

Granting, then, that the married vagabond is a bad fellow, what will you do with him? For my instruction on this question I sent circular letters of inquiry to a number of charity workers in the country concerning (1) the legal treatment of idle and intemperate heads of families, (2) the charitable treatment of the same, (3) the sentiment of the community on this subject, and have received seventy-four answers from thirty-four different states.

These letters show that laws to compel a man to support his wife, or children, or both, exist in twenty of the thirty-four states reporting, though the law is not enforced, or is seldom enforced, in all of the twenty, and in seven of the

* A paper read at the National Conference of Charities and Correction held at New Haven, May, 1895.

others it is only partially enforced. If I may venture to make any deductions from my incomplete returns, it would appear that there are better laws and a better enforcement of them in the North Atlantic states. So far as I can discover, no laws exist in the South Atlantic and south central states, though, judging by my own state, this absence of remedies does not argue an absence of the disease. The north central states have some good enactments; and the western states show plenty of law, but little or no enforcement,—an illustration of the uselessness of legislation which precedes the education of public opinion. In nearly half the states, having a non-support law, the inability to secure judgment without the wife's testimony has rendered the law of no effect.

Perhaps the provisions of the Massachusetts statute will serve as a fair example of good non-support legislation. This law provides that "whoever unreasonably neglects to provide for the support of his wife or minor child may be fined not over \$20.00, or imprisoned not exceeding six months; and the fine may be paid in whole or in part to the town, city, corporation, society, or person supporting the wife or child at the time of the complaint. At the trial, if convicted, the man is often placed on probation, agreeing to pay a certain sum each week for the support of his children." Boston is constantly enforcing this law; but from the Associated Charities in one of the smaller towns of Massachusetts comes the statement: "Neither the police nor our society can secure enforcement any further than by making the man's life a burden to him, as long as he stays here, if he does not obey it. In every case of which I have definite knowledge the man has, in the course of a few weeks, simply disappeared."

A Rhode Island judge, writing of the imperfect operation of the law in his own state, adds: "Such an enforcement is, perhaps, all that can be looked for, and all that is reasonable. For law, while capable of pretty strict enforcement as a penal instrument, is not a very efficient means of secur-

ing the discharge of social duties." He might have added that it is a very inefficient means indeed, when by its enactments we would relieve ourselves of all charitable responsibility toward the man we seek to punish or the family we seek to protect. I think I am better prepared to acknowledge that a good non-support law is better than no law at all; but I would only admit so much where the citizens of a state are fully determined to enforce it, and then re-enforce it by every other possible remedy.

One of the simplest and most effective of these other remedies is to habitually regard the man as the head of the family. As stated, this sounds like a truism; but, as a matter of fact, charitable societies, churches, benevolent individuals, and even public officials have drifted into the habit of receiving and filling applications for relief, made by the mothers and children of needy families. Charitable people learn to know the women in mothers' missions. They know the children in free kindergartens and Sunday-schools and clubs. The men do not attend these things. They are rather shy of appearing at all, unless in dull times they take the trouble to pose as industrious artisans out of work. The rule is certainly a safe one for individuals and for institutions that, where relief is concerned, the man of the family, if able to walk, shall not only do all the asking, but shall show good cause why he should receive. This would at once break up the pernicious practice of sending children to charity offices.

So far, I have taken it for granted that there is but one type of married vagabond,—a very bad type indeed. Such an hypothesis breaks down utterly in any attempt to make specific recommendation about treatment. If the letters I have received show anything, they show this: that, where there has been any attempt to deal individually and continuously with idle husbands and neglected families, there has been, at least, some measure of success, and that wherever there has been no such attempt, neither giving nor withholding, neither law nor the absence of it, has been of any

effect. I do not pretend to claim that the friendly visitor is a solution of this many-sided and difficult problem, but I do not see how it is to be solved without her. (The friendly visitor is usually a woman, though the men engaged in this work certainly deserve minority representation.) Speaking from our Baltimore experience, we should rather have one hundred good visitors, patient, intelligent, and resourceful, to deal with the married vagabonds of our city, than the best law ever framed, if, in order to get such a law, we must lose the visitors.

The visitors' tools are moral suasion, the cutting off of supplies from every available source, the frequently renewed offer of work, and, last of all, the law. A paid agent may apply these also, so may a clergyman or a public official; but the advantage peculiar to the visitor is that, confining her work, as she does, to a very few families, she has better opportunities of becoming well acquainted. These tools are only effective when applied with a full knowledge of the circumstances. Sometimes no one of them is needed. I know of one case where the man was given a fresh start in life by persuading him to remove his family to a new neighborhood, away from old associations. In another family the visitor's influence was needed on both man and wife. The wife was something of a scold; and, when that was remedied, and the man's old employer had been persuaded to give him one more trial, the visitor went with the man before a magistrate, where he took the pledge. This remedy, useless, and worse than useless, as we all know, in many cases, just happened to be the right thing here. From being an attractive ne'er-do-weel, this man has become a fairly steady, hard-working citizen.

I would not, in my enthusiasm for the work of friendly visiting, lose sight of the old adage, that it is hard to make a silk purse out of a sow's ear. The best we can do is a sorry patchwork often; but, then, civilization itself is just that, and only in the glowing pages, the modern socialist, do we find everything made new all at once. Where a man is real-

ly anxious to fight his appetite for drink, an arrangement to pay his wages to his wife or to the visitor is often the best that can be done. The United Workers of Norwich have been peculiarly successful in this direction.

In many cases the more heroic treatment of cutting off supplies must be resorted to. So long as charitable people insist that they must fore stall the possibility of "letting the innocent suffer" by aiding every neglected family generously, just so long the lazy man has society by the throat. When we find that we are dealing with such a man, it becomes necessary to prove that we have more strength of character to resist temptation to help than he has strength of character to resist temptation to work. I regret to say that he stands the test better than we do, and frequently wins the day. Where a woman refuses to leave a good-for-nothing husband, she will sometimes change her mind when she finds that the charitable people are in earnest. Where the man finds that the threats of the charitable are not, as they too often are, entirely empty, he will sometimes, when pushed to the wall, take work. I know of a soddenly selfish fellow who did nothing for his family, and whose wife could not be persuaded to leave him. At last the Charity Organization Society convinced the benevolent individuals of the neighborhood that they must withhold help, and agreed to be responsible for the consequences. A neighbor who could be trusted was paid to feed the wife and children without the husband's knowledge, and in the strictest privacy. When he inquired why such a church hadn't helped, and where the basket was from Mrs. So-and-so, and the money from the Circle of King's Daughters, and the accustomed help from half a dozen other sources, the wife replied that one and all had said they would rather let her starve than continue to help the family of a man who wouldn't work. He held out for two days, and then came for the labor-yard work order, which he had previously refused, working steadily for some weeks, and until the work closed.

Sometimes the removal of wife and children will bring a

man to his senses. One wife, for whom work was found in an institution, where she could keep her two children with her, has agreed that she will go back to her husband on condition that he will first work steadily for a year and save his earnings.

It will appear from what I have said that a visitor must have patience, must not look for very brilliant or immediate results; but it is possible on the other hand, for her to have too much patience, or, rather, to think that she is patient when, in reality, she is cowardly. I have seen a family going steadily down hill for years, the underfed, overworked mother taking finally to drink, the younger children beginning life with under-vitalized, diseased bodies, and, finally, the violent death of the second boy a month ago, coming as the least tragic happening in the family history. All this preventable misery had gradually accumulated because the visitors and others, charitably interested, lacked courage five years ago. When charitable people delay and temporize in such cases, I wish they could have a good, wholesome, terrifying vision of the future they are helping to manufacture. The fact is, the supply of capable visitors is altogether inadequate; and it is the most important function of a charity organization society to increase this supply.

I have given a very imperfect review of legal and charitable practice in cases of non-support. The last division of my subject brings me to another function of a charity organization society; namely, the influencing of public opinion. One of the questions sent to my correspondents was, "Is charitable sentiment inclined to make it easy or difficult for a man with an interesting family to live without work?" Of the thirty-four states heard from, thirty acknowledged that it is easy, on the whole, for a lazy man to find support, provided he has a family, though in states where charity organization methods are well established it is not so easy as formerly.

There is important work before us, and we cannot afford

to delay its energetic prosecution a moment longer. Some of us have grown so sensitive to the charge of hardness that, though we know we are right, we fear to lead public opinion. Others of us are not very clear what to think or to do. The expression, "Of course we cannot let the children suffer because the man is unworthy," occurs again and again in the letters I have received. "The man is benefitted by what we do for the family," writes one society; "but we can't help that." These are question-begging statements; for is it not clear that, no matter how lavish or how sparing our material assistance, we do let the children suffer, and suffer very terribly, so long as we leave them in the clutches of a man who will make no effort to care for them, who is often diseased or depraved, who shelters himself behind their neglected condition? What idea of home, of industry, of decency, can children get in such surroundings? Surely, for the sake of the children, born and unborn, we should do something more to relieve their sufferings than to give material assistance. There is no need that the children should starve.

If we are really in earnest, there is always some way other than that; but I have no hesitancy in saying that to let them starve even would be, on the whole, kinder than to leave undone those things which we so clearly ought to do for their welfare.

Some one has said to me that this is a religious question,—that when a woman has sworn to love, honor, and obey, we have no right to interfere between husband and wife, and that we do it at our peril. It is, indeed, a religious question, though in a wider sense than was intended by the objector. As to the sacredness of a wife's duties, I would raise no manner of question. But the duties of a mother are equally sacred; and sometimes, as human duties will, these duties as wife and as mother conflict. Even when such conflict is inevitable, I might hesitate to advocate interference if charitable relief were not in itself an interference. Shall our interference be effective, or the reverse? To my

mind there is only one test of this effectiveness, and that is the lasting welfare of the helpless members of the family,—the children,—not what is most comfortable for them at the moment, but what is best for them in the long run. Surely, if the dictates of religion are more imperatively clear on any one human obligation rather than another, that particular obligation is our duty to the helpless; and I am convinced that in time both charity and religion will learn to extend this consideration to unborn generations. It is well to note that, though the principle I have attempted to formulate would break up many homes (homes only in name) which are now kept together, it would, on the other hand, keep together many homes which have been too hastily broken up.

I have not had a good word to fling at the married vagabond so far. In closing, I would say a word for him by way of extenuation. I have often been forced to notice how people of this class get their view of life as a whole (in so far as they can be said to have any) from very slight and insignificant items. I remember one man, whose view of what the municipality ought to do for him had been permanently settled by a free pass from Washington to New York. Washington is lavish of passes, and what seemed to her right and just very naturally seemed so to him. Now, the married vagabond is, to a certain extent, the victim of sentimentality and gush; he has been taking himself at the charitable valuation; and the last remedy I have to offer for his complaint is this,—let us get a clear-cut and vigorous opinion about him, and then—through our churches, our laws, our newspapers, our charity agents, our friendly visitors—let us make it perfectly clear to him what that opinion is.

“Independence and self-respect are essential to happiness, and these are never to be attained together without work.”

EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYEE UNDER THE COMMON LAW.*

BY VICTOR H. OLMSTEAD AND STEPHEN D. FESSENDEN.

The relations existing between employers of labor and their employees, and the reciprocal duties, obligations, and rights growing out of those relations are, in the absence of legislative enactments, governed by the common law in regard to master and servant, the words master and servant being legally synonymous with words employer and employee.

The common law consists of principles, usages, and rules of action, applicable to the government and security of persons and property, which have grown into use by gradual adoption, without legislative authority, and have received, from time to time, the sanction of the courts of justice.

The great body of the common law of the United States consists of the common law of England, and such statutes thereof as were in force prior to the separation of this country from England, and applicable to circumstances and conditions prevailing here. These laws have been adopted as the basis of our jurisprudence in all the states except Louisiana, and many of the most valued principles of the English common law have been embodied in the constitution of the United States and the several states.

In many details, however, the common law of the United States now differs widely from that of England by reason of modifications arising from different conditions and established by American adjudications. That branch of the common law governing the relation of master and servant has undergone some changes, although in the main it is the same in this country as in England. It is not the purpose of this article to point out the changes or differences, but to state the principles and rules of the common law now prevailing

*Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 1.

throughout the United States, except where they have been changed or modified by legislative enactments.

The statement which follows is derived from articles in the American and English Encyclopedia of Law on the subject of "Master and Servant" and kindred topics, and from standard legal works treating on the subject under consideration. The reader should bear in mind that any rule or principle of the common law, as given in this statement, conflicting with a statute which has not been declared invalid or unconstitutional by the courts, is modified or changed by the statute, and that the statute instead of the common law now governs.

MASTER AND SERVANT: DEFINITIONS.—A master is variously defined as one who has in his employment one or more persons hired by contract to serve him either as domestic or common laborers; one who has the superior choice, control, and direction, whose will is represented not merely in the ultimate result of the work in hand, but in all its details; one who is the responsible head of a given industry; one who not only prescribes the end, but directs, or may at any time direct the means and methods of doing the work; one who has the power to discharge; a head or chief; an employer; a director; a governor.

A servant is one who is employed to render personal service to his employer otherwise than in the pursuit of an independent calling, and who, in such service, remains entirely under the control and direction of the latter.

THE RELATION: ITS CREATION AND EXISTENCE.—The relation of master and servant is created by contract, either express or implied, where both parties have the requisite legal qualifications for entering into a valid contract. The relation exists only where the person sought to be charged as master employs and controls the other party to the contract of service, or expressly or tacitly assents to the rendition of the particular service by him. The master must have the right to direct the action of the servant, and to accept or reject his service. The relation does not cease so long as the master retains his control or right to control over the methods

and manner of doing the work, or the agencies by which it is effected. Furthermore, the relation exists where the servant is employed, not by the master directly, but by an employee in charge of a part of the master's business with authority to engage assistance therein.

THE CONTRACT OF SERVICE.—A contract of employment is one by which an employer engages an employee to do something for the benefit of the employer, or of a third person, for a sufficient consideration, expressed or implied. The authority of a subordinate to employ an agent or servant includes, in the absence of restrictive words, authority to make a complete contract, definite as to the amount of wages, as well as to all other terms.

Ordinarily, when an adult person solicits employment in a particular line of work, the solicitation carries with it an implied assertion that the one seeking employment is competent to perform the ordinary duties of the position sought; and it is an implied condition of every contract of service that the employee is competent to discharge the duties of his employment.

A servant is presumed to have been hired for such length of time as the parties adopt for the estimation of wages; for example, a hiring at a yearly rate is presumed to be for one year; at a daily rate for one day; a hiring by piecework, for no specified time; but such fact does not in the absence of other evidence, necessarily fix the period of hiring. Where an employee has been hired to work by the week or month, the burden of proof is upon him to show any change in the contract of employment as to the term of service.

It is a general rule that when a person enters into a contract of service for a fixed compensation, he, *prima facie*, agrees to give his employer his entire time; but this rule is not inflexible.

A contract for service running for a longer period of time than one year, to be valid, must be in writing and signed by the party against whom it may be sought to be enforced, or by his authorized agent.

In the absence of an express contract of hiring, a person may recover compensation for services where the same were rendered under such circumstances as to show that he expected such compensation as a matter of right, and that the person for whom they were rendered was bound to know that he claimed compensation, or was legally entitled thereto.

Where one person performs labor for another, a request and a promise to pay the reasonable worth of such labor are presumed by law, unless it is understood that such labor is to be gratuitously performed, or it is performed under such circumstances as to repel the presumption of a promise to pay.

Where there is an express contract the servant must be furnished with employment by the master during the period covered by its terms. If by the terms of the contract the servant is employed to work by the day, week, month, or year, and nothing is said as to the time of payment for his services, the wages are due and may be demanded at the close of each day, week, month, or year, as the case may be; but in such case, as upon all questions relating to the interpretation of contracts, custom has a strong bearing.

A man can contract to furnish his own services and those of his wife, and if she makes no separate claim can sue for them; and if such contract needs ratifying, the testimony of the wife in support of his demand will be a sufficient ratification.

A wife is not responsible for the wages of her husband's employee, notwithstanding the fact that she sometimes pays such wages.

When a master agrees to pay his servant what he considers the servant's services to be reasonably worth, or, where he agrees to pay the same wages as shall be paid to other men in his employ filling similar positions, and there is no showing that the master has other employees in similar positions, the servant is entitled to recover, in a suit for wages, what his services were actually worth. And where the master and servant agree as to the existence of the contract of

service, but disagree as to the wages to be paid, the question of compensation must be left to a jury.

Unless otherwise agreed, the wages of an employee must be paid in cash. The master has no right to handle, or invest, or in any manner apply such wages, whether beneficial to the servant or not, but must pay them directly to him.

An employer may discharge an employee before the expiration of the term of service stipulated in the contract for good and sufficient cause, as, for incompetency. The discharge must be couched in such terms as to leave no doubt in the employee's mind of the employer's desire to terminate the relation.

In a majority of the states a contract for service for a specified time is considered apportionable, and an employee who has been discharged for cause is entitled to compensation for the work he has actually performed.

Where one has contracted to employ another for a certain period of time, at a specified price for the entire time, and discharges him wrongfully before the expiration thereof, the wrongfully discharged employee is entitled to recover an amount equal to the stipulated wages for the whole period covered by the contract, less the sum earned, or which might have been earned in other employment during the period covered by the breach. Upon dismissal, a servant, under the law, must seek other employment, but extraordinary diligence in such seeking is not required of him. He is only required to use reasonable efforts, and he is not bound to seek employment or render service of a different kind or grade from that which he was engaged to perform under the violated contract, nor to seek employment in a different neighborhood; and if he fails to secure employment and works on his own account the value of such work cannot be deducted from his claim.

Where an employee for a fixed period, at a salary for the period, payable at intervals, is wrongfully discharged, he may pursue one of four courses—

1. He may sue at once for the breach of contract, in which

case he can only recover his damages up to the time of bringing the suit.

2. He may wait until the end of the contract period, and then sue for the breach.

3. He may treat the contract as existing, and sue at each period of payment for the wages then due.

4. He may treat the contract as rescinded, and sue immediately for the value of his services performed, in which case he can only recover for the time he actually served.

An employee is entitled to recover damages from a person who maliciously procures his discharge, provided he proves that the discharge resulted in damage to him.

An employer is entitled to maintain an action against anyone who knowingly entices away his servant or wrongfully prevents the servant from performing his duty, or permits the servant to stay with him and harbors such a servant with the intention of depriving the master of his services.

COMBINATIONS AND COERCION OF SERVANTS.—Everyone has the right to work or refuse to work for whom and on what terms he pleases, or refuse to deal with whom he pleases; and a number of persons, if they have no unlawful object in view, have a right to agree that they will not work for or deal with certain persons, or that they will not work under a fixed price or without certain conditions.

The right of employees to refuse to work either singly or in combination, except upon terms and conditions satisfactory to themselves, is balanced by the right of employers to refuse to engage the services of anyone for any reason they deem proper. The master may fix the wages and other conditions not unlawful, upon which he will employ workmen, and has the right to refuse to employ them upon any other terms. In short, both employers and employees are entitled to exercise the fullest liberty in entering into contracts of service, and neither party can hold the other responsible for refusing to enter into such contracts.

It has been held, however, that employers in separate, independent establishments have no right to combine for the

purpose of preventing workmen, who have incurred the hostility of one of them, from securing employment upon any terms, and by the method, commonly known as blacklisting, debarring such workmen from exercising their vocation, such a combination being regarded as a criminal conspiracy.

On the other hand, a combination of employees having for its purpose the accomplishment of an illegal object is unlawful; for instance, a conspiracy to extort money from an employer by inducing his workmen to leave him and deterring others from entering his service, is illegal; and an association which undertakes to coerce workmen to become members thereof or to dictate to the employers as to the methods or terms upon which their business shall be conducted, by means of force, threats, or intimidation, interfering with their traffic or lawful employment of other persons is, to such purposes, an illegal combination.

Unlawful interference by employees, or former employees, or persons acting in sympathy with them, with the business of a railroad company in the hands of a receiver, renders the persons interfering liable to punishment for contempt of court.

EMPLOYER'S LIABILITY FOR THE INJURIES OF EMPLOYEES.

—Where a person employs an independent contractor to do work for him, and retains or exercises no control over the means or methods by which the work is to be accomplished, he is not answerable for the wrongful acts of such contractor; and the same rule governs as between a contractor and a sub-contractor. Under these circumstances an employer would not be liable for an injury sustained by a workman in the course of his employment for which he would have been liable had the work been performed under his own direction.

An employer is ordinarily liable in damages to his employee who sustains an injury through the employer's negligence. Such negligence may consist in the doing of something by the employer which, in the exercise of ordinary care and prudence, he ought not to have done, or in the

omission of any duty or precaution which a prudent, careful man would or ought to have taken.

An important duty on the part of the master is to furnish his servant with such appliances, tools, and machinery as are suited to his employment and may be used with safety; and if a master fails to use ordinary care in the selection or care of such appliances his ignorance of a defect therein will not excuse him from liability for an injury caused thereby; he is responsible for all defects in machinery or appliances of which he should have known, but failed through negligence to learn of, or which, having learned of, he has failed to remedy.

A railroad company is liable for injuries to its employees occasioned by the company's negligence in failing to keep its track or roadbed in proper condition; but such company is not bound to furnish an absolutely safe track or roadbed, its duty only being to use all reasonable care in keeping them in safe condition.

A railroad company is likewise liable if it fails to keep its track clear of obstructions and structures dangerously near the same; but such company is not negligent because it erects and maintains structures and contrivances for use in the operation of its road merely for the reason that they may be dangerous to employees operating the company's trains.

It is negligence for such a company to fail to use safe and appropriate engines; or to have the boilers of its engines properly tested; or to furnish suitable freight or passenger cars and proper safe attachments and appliances to be used in connection therewith; and such company cannot divest itself of its duty to use due care and diligence with respect to the cars of other companies to be moved and handled by its employees, in seeing that such cars are in safe condition to be so moved and handled, by contracts with such other companies that they shall keep their cars in repair.

It is negligence in such a company to permit its employees to disobey its orders, and it is liable for injuries arising for the careless or reckless running of its trains, or the starting there-

of without notice, or the running of its trains at immoderate speed.

Railroad companies, and employers of every description, are negligent if they fail to protect a servant who is exposed to danger; but such a company is not absolutely bound to take all possible precautions against storms, or against wash-outs, landslides, or other obstructions which may be dangerous to its employees. And if the mill of a manufacturing corporation is properly constructed for the carrying on of its ordinary business, the corporation is not liable to an employee who has been injured by a fire, not caused by the negligence of the corporation, because it failed to provide means of escape from the fire; nor is such corporation liable for an accident resulting in injury to an employee from its failure to fence the ordinary machinery used in the servant's employment; if, however, there is a custom in reference to the adoption of certain safeguards in a given business, so general that the employer is presumed to have knowledge of it, he is guilty of negligence if he fails to adopt such safeguards.

A master is not chargeable with negligence when an employee is injured through the use of a machine for an improper or dangerous purpose, for which it was not intended or provided, but is guilty of negligence when he exposes an employee to dangers not obvious or fairly incident to the employment, or where he introduces new and unusual machinery, involving unexpected danger, without notice to his employee.

Employers are not, as a rule, required to furnish the best and the latest improved machinery, but only such as is reasonably safe and suitable. Railroad companies, however, are ordinarily bound to adopt new inventions as soon as they have been proved by satisfactory tests to be safer than the appliances in use.

While it is the duty of an employer to exercise reasonable care in keeping buildings, machinery, tools, etc., in suitable and safe condition for use, and to this end he should frequently

inspect the machinery, etc., used by his employees, the system of inspection need not be carried to such an extent as will embarrass the operation of his business.

A master who sets a servant at work in a place of danger without giving such warning and instruction as the youthfulness, inexperience, or lack of capacity on the part of the servant reasonably requires, is guilty of negligence, and liable to the servant for an injury arising therefrom. The fact, however, that a master sets a minor servant to work at a more dangerous occupation than that in which he was originally employed does not, in itself, render the master liable for an injury resulting therefrom, unless under all the circumstances the setting him at such work was a negligent act; but the master will be held more strictly accountable in such a case than in the case of an adult.

Proprietors of manufacturing establishments are charged with the duty of exercising ordinary care in providing their employees with suitable places in which they can work in reasonable safety, and without exposure to dangers not within the usual scope of their employment.

It is the duty of employers to make and promulgate such rules and regulations for the government of their employees as will, if observed, give them reasonable protection; and employees are bound to obey all the lawful and reasonable commands of their employers, though such commands may seem harsh and severe.

It is also the duty of the employers to have a sufficient number of trustworthy, competent employees to properly and safely perform the labor required in the business in which they are engaged.

When certain duties are imposed upon an employer by legislative enactment or municipal ordinance, designed for the protection of his employees, it is negligence on his part to fail to comply with such requirements, and he is liable to his employees for injuries arising from such negligence unless it can be clearly shown that they assumed the risk.

An employer cannot avoid his liability to an employee for injuries sustained by the latter through his negligence by means of a contract with such employee which provides that in consideration of the employment he shall be exempt from such liability. Such a contract is against public policy and void. The supreme court of the state of Georgia has, however, sustained the validity of a contract of this character.

CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE BY EMPLOYEES.—It is a general rule that when the employee suffers an injury through the negligence of his employer he is not entitled to recover damages for such injury if his own negligence contributed thereto. Under this rule, where master and servant have equal knowledge of the danger of the service and the means of avoiding it, and the servant while engaged in the performance of his duties is injured by reason of his own inattention and neglect, the master is not liable; and where the servant is told to do a particular thing and is not directed as to the time or manner in which the work is to be done, it being left to his discretion, so that he is given some control over the means, time and manner of doing it, he is guilty of contributory negligence if he does not use the safest means, time, and method of accomplishing the work and is injured while so engaged, and cannot recover damages from the master; nor can he recover such damages if injured by the use of a defective appliance under his own exclusive care; nor where he had knowledge of a defect in an appliance used by him, through which he is injured, and failed to notify the master thereof, if no blame was imputable to the latter in failing to discover such defect, or in failing to furnish a safe and suitable appliance.

But an employee's right to recover damages for an injury is not affected by his having contributed thereto unless he was at fault in so contributing, and he may recover, notwithstanding his contributory negligence, if the master, after becoming aware of the danger, failed to exercise ordinary care

to prevent the injury or wilfully inflicted the damage.

When an employee in the course of his employment finds himself exposed to imminent peril due to the master's negligence, and in the terror of the moment adopts a course exposing him to greater peril and is injured, such action on his part does not constitute contributory negligence, and will not relieve the master from liability.

An employee is not guilty of contributory negligence if, when injured, he was exercising ordinary care to avoid injury, and discharging his duties in a careful and prudent manner, and the injury was sustained by reason of negligent failure on the part of the employer to exercise ordinary care for the employee's safety, as failure to warn the employee of extraneous risks and unusual dangers known to the employer but unknown to the employee, or to instruct an immature or inexperienced servant and warn him of the dangers attending his work not obvious to one of his capacity or experience; to provide suitable machinery, tools, and appliances for carrying on the work at which the servant is employed; to inspect and repair machinery, tools and appliances; to provide a safe place for the servant to work, the ordinary risks of the business excepted; to guard against a danger to a servant of which the master has been notified, or which he has promised to obviate, or which he has assured the servant did not exist; to make and promulgate proper rules and regulations for the conduct of the employment in which the servant is engaged; to employ and retain a sufficient number of competent and trustworthy servants to properly and safely carry on the business. The employee does not assume the risk of injury by reason of the negligent failure of his employer in fulfilling any of the duties incumbent upon him, and, as before stated, is not guilty of contributory negligence when injured by such failure, if he himself was without fault in discharge of his duty.

Contributory negligence is purely a matter of defence in actions by employees for damages resulting from injuries sustained during the course of their employment, and the

burden of proving it is upon the master who seeks thereby to avoid liability for such damages.

ASSUMPTION OF RISKS BY EMPLOYEES.—Where an employment is accompanied with risks of which those who enter it have, or are presumed to have, notice, they can not, if they are injured by exposure to such risks, recover compensation for the injuries from their employer; by contracting to perform hazardous duties the employee assumes such risks as are incident to their discharge, and he assumes not only the risks existing at the beginning of his employment, but also such as arise during its course, if he had, or was bound to have knowledge thereof. He does not, however, assume the risk of dangers arising from unsafe or defective methods, machinery, or other instrumentalities, unless he has, or may be presumed to have, knowledge or notice thereof, and the burden of proving that an injured employee had such knowledge or notice of the defect or obstruction causing the injury is upon the employer.

The employee assumes all risks of latent defects in appliances or machinery, unless the master was negligent in not discovering the same; but the experience, or lack of experience, of the employee is to be considered in determining whether or not he is chargeable with knowledge of such defects as are not obvious and of the danger arising therefrom.

Another risk assumed by employees is that of the master's method of conducting his business. If the employee enters upon the service with the knowledge of the risk attending the method, he cannot hold the master responsible for injuries arising from the use of such method though a safer one might have been adopted; but in order to relieve the master from liability the method must amount to a custom or mode of carrying on the business, and not consist merely of an instance or any number of instances of culpable negligence on the part of the master.

NEGLIGENCE OF FELLOW-SERVANTS.—The general rule at common law is that he who engages in the employment of another for the performance of specified duties and services, for compensation, takes upon himself the natural and ordinary risks and perils incident to the performance of such services. The perils arising from the carelessness and negligence of those who are in the same employment are no exception to this rule, and where a master uses due diligence in the selection of competent, trusty servants, and furnishes them with suitable means to perform the services in which he employs them, he is not answerable to one of them for an injury received in consequence of the carelessness or negligence of another, while both are engaged in the same service.

Various attempts have been made by judges and text writers to lay down some rule or formula by which to determine what servants of a common master may be said to be fellow-servants assuming the risk of each other's negligence. The following are well-known definitions :

Persons are fellow-servants where they are engaged in the same common pursuit under the same general control.

All who serve the same master, work under the same control, derive authority and compensation from the same common source, and are engaged in the same general business, though it may be in different grades or departments of it, are fellow-servants who take the risk of each other's negligence.

The true test of fellow-service is community in that which is the test of service ; which is subjection to control and direction by the same common master in the same common pursuit. If servants are employed and paid by the same master, and their duties are such as to bring them into such a relation that the negligence of the one in doing his work may injure the other in the performance of his, then they are engaged in the same common pursuit, and being subject to the same control they are fellow-servants.

All servants in the employ of the same master, subject to

the same general control, paid from a common fund, and engaged in promoting or accomplishing the same common object, are to be held fellow-servants in a common employment.

It is said that these definitions are faulty, and of little practical value by reason of their being stated so broadly and in such general and comprehensive terms, nevertheless they give a correct idea as to who have been determined by many courts to be fellow-servants within the rule exempting the master from liability for the negligence of one of them resulting injuriously to another.

The principal limitation contended for on the general rule in regard to fellow-servants is that there is such a servant as vice-principal, who takes the place of the master and is not a fellow-servant with those beneath him; and there is a variation of this idea to the effect that every superior servant is a vice-principal as to those beneath him. The doctrine of vice-principal is, however, repudiated by the courts of many of the states.

The master, as such, is required to perform certain duties which have been hereinbefore specified, and the person who discharges any of these duties, no matter what his rank or grade, no matter by what name he may be designated, can not be a servant within the meaning of the general rule on fellow-servants. The liability of the master for the non-performance of such duties as the law implies from the contract of service, does not rest upon the ground of guarantee of their performance, but upon the fact of the presence or absence of negligence of the master in their performance.

Whether one is acting as the representative of the master or merely as the fellow-servant with others employed by the same master, does not depend upon his rank or title, but upon the character of the duties he is performing at the time another servant is injured through his negligence; if at such time the offending servant was in the performance of a duty which the master owed his servants, he was not a fel-

low-servant with the one injured, but a vice-principal, for the rule is fundamental that a master cannot rid himself of a duty he owes to his servants by delegating his authority to another and thus escape responsibility for negligence in the performance of such duty.

If, however, at the time of the injury the negligent servant was not engaged in the performance of duty due from the master to his servants, but was discharging a duty which was due from the servant to the master, he was a fellow-servant to the one injured, engaged in the same common business, and the master would not be liable for the injuries sustained by reason of his negligence.

It is held by the courts of some of the states that, as industrial enterprises have grown, and, because of the division of labor and the magnitude of operations, have been divided into distinct and separate departments, a laborer in one department is not a fellow-servant with a laborer in another and separate department of the same establishment.

INCOMPETENCY OF FELLOW-SERVANTS.—If an employer knowingly employs or retains an incompetent servant he is liable for an injury to a fellow-servant sustained through the incompetency of the servant so employed or retained, provided the injured servant did not know and had not the means of knowing the incompetency of his fellow-servant. A master is not, however, liable for injuries to one servant by the negligence of another on the ground of unskillfulness of the latter, unless the injuries were caused by such unskillfulness.

A master does not warrant the competency of his servants, but must use all ordinary care and diligence in their selection and retention. If he has not been negligent in selecting a servant, and subsequently obtains knowledge of the servant's incompetence and still retains him, he is liable to another servant for any injury resulting from said incompetence. If the employer had no actual notice of the servant's incompetence, if it was notorious and of such a char-

acter that with proper care he would have known of it, he will still be liable.

If a person, knowing the hazards of his employment as it is conducted, voluntarily continues therein without any promise by the master to do any act to render the same less hazardous, the master will not be liable for an injury he may sustain therein, unless it is caused by the wilful act of the master. No servant is entitled to damages resulting from the incompetence of a fellow-servant when he knew of such incompetence and did not inform his employer of the same.

When it is alleged that the master has been guilty of selecting or retaining an incompetent servant, the burden of proof of said allegation is on the plaintiff. Neither incompetency nor unskilfulness will be presumed; they must be proved.

A master who has employed skilful and competent general agents or superintendents is liable for injuries received by inferior servants through the negligence of those employed by such general agents or superintendents without due care or inquiry, or retained by them after knowledge of their incompetence.

While the servant assumes the ordinary risks, and, as a general rule, such extraordinary risks of his employment as he knowingly and voluntarily encounters, he is not required to exercise the same degree of care as the master in investigating the risks to which he may be exposed; he has the right to assume that the appliances and machinery furnished him by the master are safe and suitable for the employment in which he is engaged; and to assume, when engaged in an occupation attended with danger and requiring engrossing duties, that the master will not, without proper warning, subject him to other dangers unknown to him, and from which his occupation necessarily distracts his attention; and he has the right to rely upon the taking by the master of all usual and proper precautions against accident, and his faithful fulfilment of all the duties devolving upon him.

If an employee is ordered by his master into a situation of danger, and obeys, he does not assume the risk unless the danger was so obvious that no prudent man would have obeyed the order; and the master will be liable for any injury resulting to him by reason of such dangerous employment. If, however, he leaves his own place of work for one more dangerous, in violation of the master's direction, he can not recover for any injury sustained after such change.

If the servant, upon being ordered to perform duties more dangerous than those embraced in his original employment, undertakes the same with knowledge of their dangerous character, unwilling and from fear of losing his employment, he can not, if injured, recover damages from the master; nor can he recover such damages where the injury results from an unexpected cause during the course of his employment; nor where the injury is sustained in the performance of a service not within the scope of his duty, if his opportunity for observing the danger is equal to that of his employer; and where an employee voluntarily assumes a risk he thereby waives the provisions of a statute made for his protection.

IMPROVED DWELLINGS COMPANY, BROOKLYN, NEW YORK.*

This corporation is the outgrowth of a successful experiment in providing model tenements for working people by Mr. Alfred T. White. Nearly twenty years ago he made a private investment and succeeded so well that he induced other members of his own family to coöperate in the work. The result has been the erection of buildings accommodating nearly five hundred families, and the most satisfactory demonstration which has probably yet occurred in this country of the financial success which may attend this form of philanthropy.

* Eighth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor.

The Riverside buildings are chosen as the model for description, because they are the most recently constructed and embody more of modern improvements. Financially, they have not been as successful as the Tower buildings, but the reason is principally because they have not had the advantage of such skilful supervision as has been given the latter. Superintendence in these, as in other matters, is largely responsible for success or failure.

The Riverside buildings front 307 feet on $\frac{1}{2}$ Columbia place, 201 feet on Joralemon street, 288 feet on Furman street, or nearly 800 feet in all. Three sides of the quadrangle have been built up, the fourth remaining open toward the south. The total superficial area of the lot is 60,200 square feet, only one-half of which has been built upon. The open space is in the form of a court, bounded on three sides by the rear of the buildings. The greater part of it is laid out in grass plots, intersected by gravel walks. A generous portion has been set aside as a playground for children. A paved driveway and a paved walk completely surround the court. In the center is a music pavilion, where a band of eight pieces plays two hours every Saturday afternoon during the summer season, at the expense of the proprietor. This whole space is given up to the free use of occupants. The principal playground for children during stormy weather is the verandas and the paved cellars. A portion of the court only is used for drying clothes. For this purpose rows of wooden T-shaped supports, with wire stretchers over them, are provided.

The buildings contain six stories and are 60 feet high. They are of brick. The exterior walls vary from 1 to 2 feet in thickness. The roofing is of gravel. The buildings are built almost absolutely fireproof. The staircases are not only of incombustible material, slate set in solid brick work, but are separated from the rest of the building by brick walls about a foot thick. A balcony of slate, protected by an iron railing, connects the stairway with a hall, by which in each case two or three dwellings are reached. Most of the dwellings

have, in addition, a private hallway, and while the apartments themselves and the halls are not fireproof, the balconies and staircases, which contain nothing inflammable, are easily reached. Fire escapes exist in the rear and are accessible directly from all dwellings. Iron passageways on the roof connect the three blocks. The means of escape are perfect on account of the peculiar construction of the staircases just referred to.

There are cellars paved in cement-covered concrete, which serve as storerooms for fuel and other property. Storage stalls are provided with locks. The cellars are also used for bath and boiler rooms. The buildings have no basements.

The dwellings in the upper stories are reached by means of outside front balconies leading from the staircase to interior hallways about 3 feet wide. The latter open to the private halls of the individual dwellings. The outside balconies are provided with railings made of sheet iron fastened on wrought iron bars. The balcony floors are of slate; the interior hall floors are of wood. Interior hall walls are plastered and tinted. The plaster on the walls is carried down to the floor behind the foot boards, so that insects cannot accumulate there. Stairs are kept clean by regular employees. The rooms, with very few exceptions, open directly upon either a private or common hallway. Each balcony and hallway is used by three families in common. There is no regulation against any of the families sitting or standing in the corridors so long as they do not block up the way or cause annoyance. Loitering on the stairways is prohibited. The windows on the ground floors have iron railings. Every room communicates directly, either by doors or windows, with the open air. Each dwelling has through ventilation from front to rear, the three-room apartments by means of their own doors and windows, and the two-room apartments through their windows and the hallways. The doors have transoms. No further system of ventilation seems necessary.

The dwellings are self-contained. Each family has a water-closet and scullery with a sink, stationary wash-tub,

and ash shoot, occupying a space of about 7 feet 6 inches by 5 feet in an extension at the rear, and reached directly from the living room or kitchen. The scullery proper and the water-closet each have separate outside windows. The average number of persons using a single closet is four to five. Water-closets have flushing tanks overhead containing about three gallons. These are discharged by pulling a chain. The system in use is known as the "Philadelphia hopper." The water supply is carried up in a corner of the living room where the pipes are least affected by cold weather. The faucet is in the scullery, but the water can be shut off by a stop-cock in the living room whenever there is danger of the pipes freezing. The washtubs and sinks are trapped separately from the water-closets. The traps are ventilated by vent pipes carried above the roof. Soil pipes are open at the roof and serve as rain conductors. They pass down along the back extension wall and through the rear cellar wall to the sewer, avoiding any horizontal drains under the buildings. The cesspools are all trapped and there is no possibility of escape of sewer gas. An unlimited quantity of water is allowed. Washing is done in the sculleries where tubs are provided. Drying is done usually in the courtyard or on the roof, accordingly as the families live in the three lower or the three upper stories.

A cooking range is not furnished by the company, but there is a coal box in each kitchen which holds a quarter of a ton. This is generally used by tenants for fuel storage instead of the cellar space, as it affords the advantage of greater security and convenience, a fact resulting in the purchase of small quantities of coal at a time and at a higher price. There are dumb waiters for raising fuel and provisions to the different stories. There are no garbage receptacles; all garbage must be burned. There is a closet with shelves in each kitchen which serves for a pantry. The ash shutes are one foot square and are ventilated from the roof. They discharge into large ash rooms in the rear of the cellars, the former being separated from the latter by brick

walls. The ash rooms are accessible only by doors in the rear and are emptied twice a week. In warm weather the ash shoots are regularly disinfected. No ashes are ever exposed on the driveway or in the courtyard, being loaded directly from the vaults into the carts.

There are no fireplaces. Slate slabs are fixed in the floors for stoves, which are used for heating, to rest upon. There are no heating registers. Inside shutters are found throughout. Gas on the stairs, in the public hallways, bathrooms, and office is furnished by the proprietor, but the tenants, as a rule, burn oil in their rooms. Each apartment is furnished with a clothespress, having a shelf and hooks. There are no mirrors in the rooms, except the property of tenants. Kitchen, sitting room, and hall walls are painted; bedroom walls are calcimined. A space on the wall is painted in imitation of a brick fireplace. Walls on the staircases are of brick and painted. Much attention has been given to ornamentation, hence the exterior presents a very fine appearance.

In the construction of these model tenements four things were considered essential—first, privacy; second, health; third, safety; fourth, comfort. Domestic privacy seems to be regarded of greater importance in American life than elsewhere, and Mr. White's buildings have been constructed with the aim of providing as much as possible. Attention to these four elements furnishes the secret of success, and will almost guarantee continued occupation. The Riverside buildings contain 3 one-room tenements, 91 two-room tenements, 161 three-room tenements, and 23 four-room tenements. There are 2 single stores, 4 stores with 1 room attached, and 13 stores with 2 rooms attached. There are also 2 stores with 3 rooms and 1 store with 4 rooms. The prevailing type of two-room tenements consists of a living room 16 feet by 10 feet and a bedroom 16 feet by 7 feet, exclusive of scullery and water-closet. The most general type of three-room tenements consists of a living room 16 feet by 10 feet, a bedroom of the same size, and a parlor 15 feet by

8 feet; or a living room 18 feet by 10 feet, a bedroom 16 feet by 8 feet, and a parlor 16 feet by 8 feet. In four-room tenements the living room is practically the same size, but the bedrooms and parlor are somewhat smaller. The ceilings of the first floor are 10 feet high, and in the succeeding stories 8 feet 3 inches high. Mr. White thinks that in America working people require more rooms than they do abroad; hence many families will crowd their bed and living rooms, if necessary, in order to have a parlor. The living room and kitchen are coextensive terms.

A single room and a scullery on the ground floor rent for \$1.40 a week. Two-room tenements rent from \$2 to \$2.30 in the first story, \$1.90 to \$2.20 in the second story, \$1.80 to \$2.10 in the third story, \$1.70 to \$2 in the fourth story, \$1.60 to \$1.90 in the fifth story, and \$1.50 to \$1.80 in the sixth story per week. Three-room tenements rent for \$2.60 to \$2.90 on the first floor, \$2.50 to \$2.80 on the second floor, and thence to the top, diminishing 10 cents per floor. Four-room tenements rent for \$3 to \$3.60 in the first story, \$2.70 to \$3.30 in the second story, \$2.60 to \$3.20 in the third story, \$2.50 to \$3.10 in the fourth story, \$2.40 to \$3 in the fifth story, and \$2.30 to \$2.90 in the sixth story. An average store with two rooms rents for \$25 per month. A rebate amounting to 10 cents per week for the year is paid each May to all tenants who have paid their rents promptly in advance during the preceding twelve months. This has a good effect in the prompt payment of rent. In May, 1893, an exception was made and all tenants received the rebate of 10 cents weekly as an economic appetizer.

Two features of these tenement houses, which were borrowed from London practice, were very much criticised in the beginning and were deemed quite impracticable. One was the weekly payment of rent, and the other the outside staircase. In regard to the former, it has been found that weekly rents are paid more promptly, because the amount of each payment is not so large and the money is not missed so much. This is especially the case where wages are paid

every seventh day. As regards the open staircase, no objection has been made by tenants. During the first week after the opening of the first building forty apartments were filled. The buildings are intended to accommodate the poorer paid working people, starting with those earning \$1.25 per day.

The Riverside buildings were opened for occupation May, 1890. The original cost of the lot was \$81,892.15; of the buildings, \$264,163.14. The total sum received for rent from these buildings during the fiscal year 1893 was \$33,866.43.

A classification of tenants, by place of birth and age, and number and average size of families, of the Riverside buildings exhibited the following results:

AGE OF TENANTS AND AVERAGE SIZE OF FAMILY IN THE RIVERSIDE BUILDINGS, BY PLACE OF BIRTH.

Birthplace of Tenants	Number of Families	Age of Tenants.				Average Size of Family
		Over 21 years	5 to 21 years	1 to 5 years	Under 1 year	
United States.....	81	176	67	41	16	3.7
England.....	12	25	18	4	1	4.0
Scotland.....	5	10	1	5	0	3.2
Ireland.....	69	154	70	32	9	3.8
Germany.....	19	51	14	12	4	4.3
France.....	2	6	1	2	0	4.5
Italy.....	2	4	0	1	0	2.5
Spain.....	1	2	0	0	0	2.0
Sweden.....	21	49	11	16	2	3.7
Norway.....	23	50	8	8	8	3.2
Denmark.....	12	25	9	6	4	3.7
Canada.....	6	14	3	2	0	3.2
Cape Town, South Africa	1	1	3	2	0	6.0
Total.....	254	567	205	131	44	3.7

The total number of families was 254 and the total number of individuals 947.

The occupations of heads of families in the Riverside buildings were as follows:

IMPROVED DWELLINGS COMPANY, BROOKLYN, N. Y. 135

OCCUPATION OF HEADS OF FAMILIES IN THE RIVERSIDE BUILDINGS.

Occupation	Number	Occupation	Number	Occupation.	Number
Dressmakers.....	6	Clerks.....	10	Oysterman.....	1
Grocers.....	2	Engineer.....	1	Gardener.....	1
Wire-worker.....	1	Engraver.....	1	Janitor.....	1
Laborers.....	42	Stenographer.....	1	Bookkeeper.....	1
Weighmaster.....	1	Porters.....	8	Compositors.....	3
Baker.....	1	Tailor.....	1	Merchants.....	2
Shipping Clerk.....	1	Watchmen.....	5	Stonecutters.....	2
Waiters.....	3	Laundresses.....	3	Nurse.....	1
Housekeepers.....	20	Blacksmith.....	1	Molders.....	2
Boatmen.....	3	Varnisher.....	1	Screw Maker.....	1
Music Teachers.....	2	Drivers.....	6	Machinist.....	1
Street-car Conductor.....	1	Upholsterer.....	1	Coopers.....	2
Elevator Conductor.....	1	Glass Cutters.....	2	Fisherman.....	1
Carpenters.....	16	Paper Cutter.....	1	Lineman.....	1
Bartenders.....	3	Shirt Maker.....	1	Steward.....	1
Shoemakers.....	3	Policeman.....	1	Cooks.....	2
Captains, vessels.....	2	Firemen.....	3	Tobacconist.....	1
Glass Storekeeper.....	1	Silver Burnisher.....	1	Sailors.....	2
Confectionery Store-keeper.....	1	Furrier.....	1	Iceman.....	1
Milk Storekeeper.....	1	Butchers.....	2	Pressman.....	1
Fancy Goods Store-keeper.....	3	Painters.....	4	Barbers.....	2
Restaurant Keeper.....	1	Druggist.....	1	Awning Maker.....	1
Bricklayer.....	1	Advertising Agent.....	1	Chair Maker.....	1
Longshoremen.....	20	Insurance Agents.....	2	Paper-Bag Maker.....	1
Missionary.....	1	General Agent.....	1	Bookbinder.....	1
Printers.....	3	Seamstress.....	1	Total.....	254
Lightermen.....	6	Boiler Maker.....	1		
		Millwright.....	1		
		Lawyer.....	1		

The nationalities of heads of families in the Tower buildings, the second group of buildings opened by the Improved Dwellings Company, were as follows :

NATIONALITY OF HEADS OF FAMILIES IN THE TOWER BUILDINGS.

Nationality	Number	Nationality	Number
American.....	23	Irish.....	23
Austrian.....	1	Norwegians.....	37
Belgian.....	1	Scotch.....	1
Canadians.....	2	Swedes.....	26
Danes.....	7	Total.....	132
English.....	3		
Germans.....	8		

The occupations of heads of families in the same buildings were as follows :

OCCUPATIONS OF HEADS OF FAMILIES IN THE TOWER BUILDINGS.

Occupation	Number	Occupation	Number	Occupation	Number
Police Officers.....	3	Lightermen.....	4	Courier.....	1
Private Watchmen.....	2	Blacksmiths.....	2	Janitors.....	2
Laborers.....	11	Inventor.....	1	Cooper.....	1
Photo-Engraver.....	1	Plumber.....	1	Peddler.....	1
Clerks.....	10	Cook.....	1	Ship Chandler.....	1
Barber.....	1	Stevadore.....	1	Car Conductor.....	1
Longshoremen.....	4	Marble Cutter.....	1	Bricklayer.....	1
Carpenters.....	16	Elevator Man.....	1	Silver Plater.....	1
Rigger.....	1	Dock Builders.....	2	Mason.....	1
Porters.....	6	Salesman.....	1	Fireman.....	1
Tailors.....	6	Truckman.....	1	Brass Worker.....	1
Bookkeepers.....	2	Engineers.....	3	Housekeepers.....	2
Boatman.....	1	Painters.....	2	Laundresses.....	5
Machinist.....	1	Milkman.....	2	Dressmakers and	
Boat Captain.....	1	Manager.....	1	Seamstressess.....	7
Tinsmith.....	1	Brass Roller.....	1	Charwoman.....	1
Waiters.....	2	Gas Fitter.....	1	No Occupation.....	3
Grocer.....	1	Oil Merchant.....	1		
Umbrella Maker.....	1	Printer.....	1	Total.....	132
Ship Steward.....	1	Caterer.....	1		
Carver.....	1	Compositor.....	1		

Three distinct groups of buildings are owned by the Improved Dwellings Company of Brooklyn. They are all situated not far from the river bank and are extremely convenient of access from the ferries and numerous street car lines centering in the neighborhood. These buildings are known respectively as the "Home buildings," "Tower buildings," and "Riverside buildings." The Home buildings were opened for habitation in February, 1877; the first section of the Tower buildings was opened in June, 1878; the Riverside buildings received tenants for the first time in May, 1890. In all these different blocks there are 4 one-room tenements, 135 two-room tenements, 308 three-room tenements, 48 four-room tenements, 1 five-room tenement, 23 stores with dwellings, and 13 stores without dwellings.

The work of this company is due entirely to private enterprise. One can scarcely call it a public concern, since members of Mr. White's family only are interested. There is no capital stock. The older buildings pay 10 per cent. on the money invested; the latest, the Riverside, pays only from 5 to 6 per cent. The cost of building has greatly increased since the enterprise was started. It had augmented by about 40 per cent. in 1890, when the Riverside buildings

were constructed. This increased cost has been due mainly to the enhanced price of labor. The value of slate is about the same, but iron and woodwork has slightly increased, for brick and masonry there has been a considerable advance, while plastering costs 100 per cent. more. The wages paid to bricklayers in 1878 was about \$2.50 per day of ten hours; twelve years later they were paid \$4 a day of eight hours.

One and one-half per cent. of the cost of the building is set aside as a repair fund during each fiscal year. The company is very liberal in making repairs, and finds that it pays to be so.

The general taxes in 1893 amounted to \$10,403.39; the water tax to \$2,094.67. The total estimated value of lands and buildings belonging to the company is now \$672-288.69. The gross rental during the last fiscal year was \$64,731.14. There was very little loss of rent from unoccupied tenements, as they were rarely empty longer than it took to put them in order to receive new occupants. Rents are paid weekly in advance, on Saturday or Monday, at the offices of resident agents. Tenants rarely give notice of intention to quit, moving out whenever it suits their convenience to do so. Arrearages of rent from three days to one week are allowed. In the older groups of buildings rents have varied but very little. When the Riverside buildings were completed a higher rent was charged, but it was soon found that that class of people could not go beyond the limit paid in the other houses, and it was therefore reduced to the same rate as in the older blocks. The rentals are about the same as those exacted in other houses of the vicinity for an equal amount of floor space. The advantages are not in the rental, but in the superior accommodations. The average duration of tenancy was greater formerly than it has been since the introduction of rapid transit. Then only such people as coachmen and servants left during the summer time, but now all classes seem to adopt the custom of going to the suburbs for the summer. The outward movement commences

Public Library.

in June, and the people remain until the cold weather of approaching winter drives them back. This movement is greater in the Riverside buildings than in the older blocks. Changes of employment and deaths also cause removals. Tenants do not often remain longer than three years.

Tenants are not permitted by the regulations to sublet any part of their lodgings, but they often do so, claiming that the boarders are relatives and as such have a right to remain in the family.

The only form of application required of a prospective tenant is that he shall sign an agreement to follow the prescribed regulations. There is no lease or formal contract. The apartment is let under the following conditions :

All rents payable weekly in advance, on Saturday or Monday, at the office during office hours.

Tenants not paying in advance will be notified to leave at once.

No tenant is permitted to underlet any portion of his apartments, or to take in lodgers.

Tenants are required to give immediate notice to the agent of any need of repairs, and to pay for such as may be due to their own carelessness.

No nails to be driven in walls or woodwork without agent's consent.

In winter wash rooms to be kept warm to prevent freezing of pipes.

Halls and balconies to be cleaned daily by the tenants using them.

Tenants are strictly prohibited from throwing anything out of the windows, and from obstructing the waste pipes or ash flues.

Only ashes to be thrown into ash flues.

All garbage must be burned.

No clothes to be hung out of windows.

No animals to be kept on the premises.

Carpets to be shaken only in the yard.

Clothes to be removed from lines so soon as dry. Lines not to be used on Sunday.

Plants must be watered only in the rooms.

Before washing windows notify tenants below.

Children not allowed on the roof, nor to play on stairs or balconies.

Chopping or sawing wood not allowed in the apartments or on the roof.

Disorderly tenants will be expelled at once.

The agent is required to enforce all these regulations, and will be immediately discharged if he neglects to do so.

Bath tickets may be had from the agent.

The complete management of the buildings is in the hands of resident agents, who are intelligent and capable men and receive good salaries.

The duties of the agents are to collect rents, employ help, look after minor improvements and repairs, select tenants, etc.

One woman is employed for each staircase at a compensation of \$1 per week. She washes the staircase once every day before 9 a. m. There are two watchmen employed—one to light the staircase and keep order, receiving \$12 per week; the other, a special police officer, on duty from 7 p. m. to 2 a. m. receiving \$7 per week.

As regards situation of buildings in reference to the places of employment of tenants, it may be said that the longshoremen and those working in kindred occupations (who constitute a considerable portion of the tenantry) work from one-half to one mile from the buildings. The others are so located that information for individual cases can not be given. Some work in New York and reach their destination by ferry and street railway, or ferry only, while others are employed in Brooklyn, either riding or walking to the appropriate locality. The ferry costs 4 or 6 cents, and the street car 10 cents for a round trip. Those going to New York, however, have no occasion to take the street car on the Brooklyn side.

A reading room, open from 7 to 10 p. m., has been placed in the Home buildings. It is situated on the ground floor and is intended for the use of the tenants of the Home and Tower groups, as well as the inhabitants of the cottages in Warren place. A large table occupies the center, containing files of seven daily papers, three weekly illustrated papers, and three monthly magazines. The bookcase contains 334 plainly bound novels, which may be taken away for a week at a time. Periodicals may not be removed from the room unless they are old. Only tenants are admitted, and these must be provided with library tickets, which are issued free by the agent. The name and room number of the occupant is stated upon the ticket.

Adjoining the reading room and library are six bathrooms, also for the free use of tenants. These are provided with hot and cold water. Tickets must be obtained in every case when a bath is desired. They are issued by the agents to tenants only, and the number of tickets is not limited. Bathrooms are open for women and children Tuesdays from 3 to 6 p. m. and Saturdays from 2 to 6 p. m.; for boys, Saturdays from 9 a. m. to noon, and from May 1 to October 1, Wednesdays from 3 to 6 p. m., in addition; for men, from 7.30 to 10 p. m., Sundays from 8 a. m. to noon, and from May 1 to October 1, Wednesdays from 7.30 to 10 p. m. The boiler heating the water for the baths is placed in such a position that it heats the reading room and bathrooms as well. A woman is employed at a weekly compensation of \$2 and free apartments (\$2.10 per week additional) to manage and clean the baths and reading room. About \$9 per month is expended for newspapers.

Statistics of the patronage of reading room for the period from December 3, 1892, to July 1, 1893, with the exception of the month of March, 1893, appear in the following table :

ATTENDANCE AT READING ROOM OF IMPROVED DWELLINGS COMPANY.

Week beginning—	Men.	Women	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
December 3, 1892.....	83	5	10	2	100
December 10, 1892.....	92	3	6	1	102
December 17, 1892.....	82	4	4	90
December 25, 1892.....	82	3	4	89
January 1, 1893.....	84	4	7	95
January 8, 1893.....	78	4	9	91
January 15, 1893.....	77	4	9	90
January 22, 1893.....	81	7	12	100
January 29, 1893.....	72	6	9	87
February 5, 1893.....	72	9	9	90
February 12, 1893.....	73	13	6	92
February 19, 1893.....	84	12	4	100
February 26, 1893.....	84	7	15	106
April 2, 1893.....	80	10	15	105
April 9, 1893.....	75	10	17	102
April 16, 1893.....	83	7	14	104
April 23, 1893.....	72	8	12	92
April 30, 1893.....	73	9	9	1	92
May 7, 1893.....	76	9	14	99
May 14, 1893.....	81	8	14	103
May 21, 1893.....	73	6	17	1	97
May 28, 1893.....	68	6	13	87
June 4, 1893.....	61	5	11	1	78
June 11, 1893.....	59	6	9	74
June 18, 1893.....	48	6	15	69
June 25, 1893.....	48	15	63
Total.....	1,941	171	279	6	2,397

A record of those taking baths at the Home buildings during the first six months of 1893 has been kept. For the women, boys, and girls a separation of the different nationalities has been attempted. This differentiation include three principal heads, namely, Irish, Scandinavians, and other nationalities. The figures appear in the following table :

RECORD OF BATHS TAKEN AT THE HOME BUILDINGS.

Month	Men	Women			Boys			Girls		
		Irish	Scandinavian	Other nationalities	Total	Irish	Scandinavian	Other nationalities	Total	Total
January.....	7	1	1
February.....	6	1
March.....	16	3	3	1	2	4	3
April.....	19	9	9	1	2	4	15	3
May.....	34	9	9	8	17	1	26	34	4
June.....	58	4	12	2	18	9	17	4	30	43
									51	3

At the Riverside buildings baths are provided and similar regulations prevail. The record of baths taken at the Riverside buildings is as follows :

RECORD OF BATHS TAKEN AT THE RIVERSIDE BUILDINGS.

Month.	Year.			
	1890	1891	1892	1893
January.....		56	6	15
February.....		54	26	33
March.....		53	37	48
April.....		96	181	189
May.....	303	342	210	193
June.....	387	338	454	424
July.....	489	322	662	448
August.....	497	407	451	420
September.....	239	206	249	241
October.....	93	149	184	192
November.....	131	67	49	56
December.....	51	56	92	78
Total.....	2,200	2,206	2,601	2,331

It is only fair to say that the bathrooms at the Riverside buildings have but recently been opened, and consequently the figures should hardly be taken as indicative of the habits of cleanliness among tenants.

It is not the purpose of this inquiry to meritoriously distinguish specific model enterprises. Facts are allowed to speak for themselves, and on this basis of judgment full justice will be accorded to the Brooklyn Improved Dwellings Company.

SOUTH END HOUSE.

Andover House enters upon its fifth year with a change of name. The name South End House was chosen in order more distinctly than ever to involve the settlement with the life of its district.

The house itself with the opening of this new year has been greatly improved and an additional building has been leased near by, to be used for boys' clubs, with a reading room on the ground floor.

We regret that we are obliged to severely abridge the report which has just come to us, for it is full of interesting

matter. The pamphlet is well worth reading by all who are interested in the social questions which must, even on the most thoughtless, sometimes force themselves.

The neighborhood work centres in the meetings of a large number of groups of children and young people. We are gradually filling out a consistent plan by which the settlement will be able to provide in its special way for all ages, from early childhood onward. There are two very interesting clubs for little children, which are carried on by kindergarteners. There are several very successful girls' clubs, the younger girls meeting in the afternoon and the older girls at night. The boys' clubs are limited only by the amount of space and the number of workers who are available. Several groups which include young men and women together have their regular meetings at the House, and there will be room for special growth in this direction now that the boys' clubs are transferred entirely to the Harrison Avenue building.

The savings bank and circulating library still remain at the House; so that in this way, as well as by frequent entertainments and parties the boys will still be coming into the home atmosphere of the House. In the Harrison Ave. building we shall still continue the small groups under close personal leadership, but we propose for certain purposes to federate the groups into two larger clubs, which will contain about thirty or forty boys each. These clubs will be, to a large extent, self-governing and, in a measure, self-supporting. The boys are enthusiastic and loyal, and we take great satisfaction in the prospects of this very important feature of the work.

Several of the residents have assisted in the local conferences of the Associated Charities. The House is represented in the committee of the Ward Sixteen Day Nursery; upon the board of directors of the Co-operative Building Association, which has two large blocks of model tenement houses in the district; and upon the Board of Trustees of Wells Memorial Institute. We have come into close relations with the schools of the district, and the teachers of the local

schools have visited the House, and become familiar with its plan. Two residents of the House during the past year have assisted actively in the work of two mission chapels in the district.

We also make a special point of acting as local representatives of the neighborhood and district in a variety of enterprises that are organized for the city as a whole. One of the residents is a member of the Municipal League, and of the council of the Better Dwellings Society. The settlement gives a large share of its time during the summer to assuming the full local responsibility for the "Country Week," through which one hundred and twenty-five children were last summer sent from our neighborhood into the country; and for the "Mutual Helpers," by whom generous supplies of flowers are sent from the country, and are then distributed by members of the girls' clubs to the sick and aged in the district.

The very interesting forms of joint effort which have been carried on by co-operation on the part of Denison House, the Wells Memorial Institute, and our own settlement, have been mentioned in previous reports. In addition to many smaller things, there have been the Social Science Club and the Federal Labor Union, meeting at Denison House; and the South End Free Art Exhibition and the South End Musical Union, which have been more directly under our charge.

The South End Musical Union was organized early last winter for the purpose of introducing into the district a series of concerts which would present that kind of good music which naturally appeals to common human feeling. It was a distinct part of the purpose to have the music rendered in a thoroughly artistic way by the best musicians whose services could be secured.

The hall, which seats four hundred people, was crowded at each concert; and the deep impression which the music produced on those who attended, more than repaid all the efforts of furnishing the concerts.

The second South End Free Art Exhibition was given dur-

ing the latter part of April and the first part of May, the doors being open daily for over three weeks.

More than seventeen thousand people saw the pictures; and there was, as before, constant and unmistakable evidence that the people in this part of Boston are fond of pictures, and are affected and influenced by them. Two new features were introduced in connection with this second picture show. We had an artistic poster and a beautiful cover for the catalogue, as a result of competition amongst Boston art students. We also had in the hall above the one in which the exhibition was held a series of talks about art.

The settlement comes more and more into relations of friendly understanding with men engaged in the labor movement. Indeed, one of the best uses is that of serving as a place where workingmen may, without any feelings of restraint, meet and confer with business and professional men. Such conferences, which do so much to alleviate the strain of social unrest, are occurring constantly at the House. The residents are frequently represented by invitation at business and social gatherings of the trade-union men, and an increasing part is taken in the various educational meetings which are held by workingmen for the sake of discussing economic and social questions.

The careful study of actual social conditions is constantly made a matter of first-rate importance in our work.

We hope from now on to have graduate students coming to the House on fellowships from the different New England colleges, who will spend a year or more in the special investigation of some particular social problem. The value of results gained in this way, with that due mixture of science and sympathy for which the settlement especially stands, we believe can hardly be overestimated.

Such new departures as the settlement enters upon are often undertaken in connection with the work of the Opportunist Club,—a group of young business and professional men, including the residents, which meet at the House. This club, during the last two winters, has done a unique and suc-

cessful work, both in the way of pressing certain beneficent measures through the State and City governments, and in the way of practical economic experiments conducted upon a business basis. The club has not committed itself to any specific undertaking as yet this winter, but is seriously considering, among other things, the establishment of a model lodging house,—a thing which Mr. Sanborn's investigations show to be so greatly needed.

We are glad each year to notice the increase in number and strength of settlements in Boston and throughout the country. We have had an active share in the plans for establishing Peabody House, a settlement for kindergarteners, which is soon to open its doors in the neighborhood of the Union Station. We welcome also a new settlement of men, which has been opened in Decatur Street, and is called Hale House, in recognition of the leadership of Dr. Edward Everett Hale.

An informal conference of the settlements in the United States was held in New York in May of the present year. There were found to be more than twenty-five settlements in the country, most of which were represented. The great value of the conference was not so much in the reports of things achieved, of which there was no lack, as in the clear, common conviction of the high degree of reality which lies in the settlement idea and method, and in the assurance of success that comes from its constant spread and progress throughout the country.

WILLARD SETTLEMENT.—The Massachusetts Y is planning to establish a Willard settlement in Boston just as soon as the necessary funds can be secured. It will be a place for the meetings of the local Y as well as a center for busy activity in all the lines of social settlement work.

INTELLIGENCE.

THE LEND A HAND CLUBS.

MONTHLY MEETING.

The monthly meeting of representatives of Lend a Hand Clubs was held at the LEND A HAND office, January 27th, Dr. Hale presiding. Seven members were present.

Letters were read from New Mexico, where the Clubs have recently sent a young man for his health. He was able to work, and was doing so for his board, with the hope of paying employment in the early spring.

The secretary read a letter asking for magazines, etc., for a reading room just established and superintended by Mrs. Crockett, a faithful Lend a Hand Club worker for many years. A large package of books and magazines had been sent from the LEND A HAND office.

A letter from a school in the South had been received at the LEND A HAND office, asking for books and clothing. At the same time a letter came from a Club asking where a barrel containing just such things should be sent. The Southern letter was sent to the Club.

Mrs. Whitman read the programme of the Lowell Conference, to be held February 1st. The ladies present spoke of the interest and benefit of the conferences, and expressed the in-

tention of being present. Several letters had been received with regard to it.

The subject of Armenian sufferers was brought before the meeting. Dr. Hale gave an interesting account of Dr. Kimball's formation of a Club in Van, Turkey, in November, 1887. She had to create the idea of public spirit among the daughters of the rich Armenians. As a Club worker she deserved, in her efforts to help the Armenians, our hearty support.

Mrs. Whitman stated that Dr. Kimball's brother cabled her at one time \$300.00. She received it with the interval of one day only. By sundown of the second day, she had sent across the border to Persia, purchased 1960 bushels of wheat and had 900 pounds of dough in the ovens she had hired, baking, to feed the starving creatures who were surrounding her home.

Dr. Kimball, for some time, has been trying to prepare for this emergency. The people have been carding and spinning wool, and weaving the coarse cloth of the country, receiving bread in payment, and they sent 800 pairs of socks and four bales of cloth to the suffering, almost frozen people at Sassoun.

Dr. Hale spoke of the circular which he addressed to the Clubs, a copy of which is given here. Money had also come from other sources, and Mrs. Whitman announced that \$530.00 had been contributed, a portion of which was already in Van. Dr. Hale urged the necessity of sending the money at once.

The meeting then adjourned.

BOSTON, Jan. 16, 1896.

TO THE SECRETARY OF THE LEND A HAND CLUB.

My Dear Madam : — I do not know that you remember that Dr. Grace Kimball, of Van, who takes a personal part

in the distribution of bread to the starving Armenians, is at the head of one of our Clubs.

I want to send some money to Miss Kimball by cable.

If your Club can contribute anything, no matter how little, let us know at once.

Say to your members, that twelve cents keeps a person alive for a week, who would be starving without this help.

Truly yours,

EDWARD E. HALE.

LEND A HAND OFFICE,

3 Hamilton Place, Boston.

BELFAST, MAINE.

That first winter we met in the evening in a room of the Masonic Temple, once a week. The Club never drew in the girls from sixteen to twenty or so, for which it was formed, but that first year, sixty-two girls, from ten to fifteen, joined, but the attendance was very irregular. The winter of 1891-92 the city government let us have a room at Memorial Hall.

The Club still met weekly in the evening, and many of the members of the previous winter joined again, and of course new ones were drawn in.

For work these two winters, the girls made aprons, worked simple doilies, brought their own work, plain or fancy, if they wished help, but the next year the Club was started on another basis, and run more systematically. A sewing teacher was hired (the former years the help was volunteer), who, under a committee of ladies, some of whom aided her each week, taught the girls plain sewing. The material was provided, the garments cut and basted, and each girl had for her own what she made. The Club met Saturday afternoons, and included girls from eight to fifteen. This system weeded out those who came to have a good time, but the girls who wished to learn made good

progress with their needles. They were taught to mend their clothes, etc. The last two winters it has been the same, and this winter will be the same, except this year the girls meet at the Alliance rooms. The Club has been very successful, the girls have been benefitted, their families reached through them, and others helped, not members of the Club. The work of the Temperance Alliance is principally for girls, and they have just opened a Girls' Home for needy and destitute children, to take care of them, train them and find good homes for them. A great work, and alas, so much need of such homes!

SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

The Saint Theresa Branch of King's Daughters, consists of seventeen young girls. The meetings for the third year of its organization were held regularly every month at the parsonage, from November, 1894, to May, 1895.

The interest in the old ladies at the Home was manifested in the regular readings there, every Friday afternoon throughout the time our society held its meetings.

A tea and sale of home-made candy, was given at the parsonage, December 8th. The proceeds (over \$12.00) went to buy presents for the old ladies at the Home, and to give six families Christmas dinners, each consisting of a turkey, sweet potatoes, and cranberries. A family who had met with great trouble, was given, in addition to the turkey, cranberries, and sweet potatoes, a squash and some onions, also a nice box of new toys for the children.

A piano and vocal recital was given at the vestry, February 12th, by Mr. E. Cutter and Mr. W. S. Hawkins. With the net proceeds from this, over (\$30.00) two cribs with their furnishings were bought for the Day Nursery.

Later, Easter flowers were purchased with this money, for the patients at the Hospital, old ladies at the Home, and six other persons who were ill at the time. Also a pair of shoes was bought for a small child at the Day Nursery.

A Fair was held at the vestry in May. At this the King's Daughters had a table, and waited on several of the supper tables. \$2.00 was also given to this Fair.

Our correspondence with the King's Daughter in Monrovia, West Africa, was continued, and we learned a little more of what the society was doing there.

NEPONSET, MASS.

The Young Ladies' Aid Society having held its annual meeting, present as the report for the past year: three hundred and fifty articles of clothing given away, \$59.00 spent for rent, groceries and fuel.

We have a membership of eight active, and four honorary members, and have held sixteen meetings for work, with an average attendance of four members.

At Christmas we sent a barrel of clothing to the Associated Charities, a box to the Baptist Bethel, also to the News-boys' Home, a blackboard and easel to the Y. M. C. Union, a barrel and a box of books and magazines to the Lend a Hand Club in Columbia, South Carolina. This year we celebrate our tenth birth-day, and glancing over the record of our society during that time, we have held 272 meetings, dispensed 3770 articles of clothing, besides boxes of boots and shoes, and magazines and books, besides having spent about \$800 for materials, rent, groceries and fuel. The annual supper was followed by progressive whist.

NEWTON CENTER, MASS.

I write for the Angelina A. Gammons Society, to say that we are progressing nicely. We change officers every year. In the fall we held a little cake and candy sale in the parlors of our church, and although it was a very rainy day, we made about twenty-six dollars, and sold everything we had. Last year we gave a little play, which proved quite a success. Some of us are rehearsing now for another play which we expect to give in about a month. We generally sew every

winter for the Children's Mission. This winter we have been making pinafores for them. Just before Christmas we made twenty-five stockings, and filled them with candy, nuts, and toys, and sent them to the Parker Memorial, to be given to twenty-five little poor children in Boston.

Our meetings are held every other Tuesday. We have quite a number of members belonging to our band of King's Daughters now.

EAST BRIDGEWATER, MASS.

We all still live, and I hope each working in her own particular sphere, "In His Name." We have had no regular meetings since a year last November. The older members of the Club left home for schools and college, but our influence is still felt. In August we boarded three little girls from the Children's Mission, for a week.

Some of the remaining King's Daughters are now making comfort bags, to go in a barrel of literature which our W. C. T. Union is making up for a lumber camp. Please keep us on your list—as our interest is unabated—although we cannot meet regularly.

BATH, N. H.

We have already paid fifty-six dollars on the minister's salary this year, and three or four times that amount on our church debt. We hope to see the end of our church debt in 1896. We have had a hard struggle to maintain our little society, and build our church; had it not been for kind friends outside, we never could have done it. We are making up subscriptions now for several things. We are at work. We have a fair every year, and several entertainments. We are to have one at New Year's, and a cantata at Christmas, and several met to-night to see about getting up a play for February, so we keep pretty busy.

BARRE, MASS.

The Lend a Hand Club of Barre consists of nineteen members, but only about half are able to attend the meetings, and do active work.

We commenced the year which is just past, in selling cook-books to help pay for a carpet which we had bought for the Unitarian church of this town, in the fall. For this book each member of the club contributed her favorite recipes. We had them printed in very pretty little pamphlets, and soon had sold more than enough to pay our debt for the carpet. On February 14th we gave a reception to the Unitarian society, at the house of one of the members of the Club. All through the early spring we sewed on underclothes and dresses for a poor child in the town. There were no meetings during the summer months, as most of us were out of town. But we were all ready to begin our work again in October, and have been sewing on winter clothes for the same child, whom we worked for in the spring, and two other little girls who were in need of help. At Christmas time the club sent a turkey to a poor family. We are now going to begin making bedquilts.

PETITION FOR AN INDUSTRIAL HOME FOR
HABITUAL DRUNKARDS.

White-ribboners are asked to cut this petition out and use it in their own state :

To the Senate and House of Representatives of — :

We, your petitioners, beg to present the following facts, viz. : The researches of scientific men have proved that inebriety is a disease ; that the appetite is cumulative, growing by what it feeds on. For these reasons, combined with

the incitement of hereditary appetite and the powerful temptation of the saloon, numbers of men in every community become the slaves of alcohol. As a result of this their own lives are endangered and their characters steadily deteriorate, while their homes become less pure, happy, and safe, society is on a lower plane, and the state suffers the loss of those who might have been patriotic and useful citizens.

For these and many other reasons, we appeal to you to frame a law whereby men who are proved to be habitual inebriates, shall be assigned by the courts of the commonwealth to industrial homes of detention for a period of from one to two years, or less, according to conduct.

We urge this practical temperance measure in the interest of the inebriate himself, as well as of those who are incalculably injured by his habits, for long experience has convinced us that under existing conditions, reformation is wellnigh impossible, unless, by some means, sufficient time is afforded to cleanse the system from the presence of alcoholic poison.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union will do all in its power to help those who are under the drink bondage, and to solace those whose homes have been desolated by the alcohol curse; but we beg you to furnish, as you only can, the added guarantees and safeguards of the law.

STUDENTS' VOLUNTEER WORK.

The director of the volunteer work at Harvard, Mr. Charles W. Birtwell, in a leaflet on the subject, recently issued, says:—

This "Student Volunteer Work," is simply a coöperative effort by young men at Harvard to meet the problem thus created: to get hold of this thing called charity, philanthropy, social service, most simply and effectively,—to secure a real adaptation between it and the conditions of col-

lege life. The new activity must help, not hinder, the people or the causes that we venture to touch, and must enrich, not impair, student life.

A committee of representative students, a number of professors and graduates as advisers, and a director, so called, —one of the graduate advisers, first called in as a volunteer, then paid a salary to enable him to give more of his time to the work: these constitute the machinery for responsible action. The advisers and the director are selected on the ground of their acquaintance with charities and their interest in Harvard and its students.

A student who wants to do a bit of charitable work, or religious work among the poor, has but to call on the director at Grays 17 between nine and eleven o'clock any Tuesday morning to secure a personal and confidential interview. It may take ten minutes, or half an hour, or perchance more than one interview, for the director to determine what he would advise the student to do, and to prepare him for an intelligent start in the work recommended. His experience, temperament, tastes, special talents, studies, health, future profession and place of residence, require to be taken into account. If the young man offers to give more time than seems wise, he is discouraged from overtaxing himself; if he is too distrustful of himself, an effort is made to give him confidence,

Known opportunities for volunteer services among the charities are utilized, and others thought out as the tastes and special talents of the students may suggest new ways of serving the poor or unfortunate, in their own homes or in institutions, in connection with existing agencies. Always, however, the student is sent where, as he gives himself, he will receive the guidance and direction of experts, and profit by association with discreet and experienced people.

So a number of young men have become friendly visitors for the Associated Charities, and have met the poor in their own homes. Others have taken charge of Home Libraries for the Children's Aid Society,—small libraries placed in

the homes of poor families, some boy or girl in the family acting as librarian, and the membership of a library including half a score of children from a single neighborhood who meet with their visitor once a week to exchange and talk about the books, read, sing, play games, save their pennies, etc. Another young man has visited a bed-ridden child who had been discharged from the hospital, but whose case the hospital doctors wished to follow through a volunteer visitor. Other students have helped run Boys' Clubs. Another man, preferring religious work, has taken a class in a mission Sunday-school. Still another has given talks to groups of poor children in the Home Libraries, on the lives of some famous authors, whose works the children had been reading. Again, under the auspices of the Society for Home Savings, students have visited poor families, and encouraged them to save what they could from week to week. Largely the men have become acquainted with the poor in their own homes.

When vacancies are reported in the teaching force of the Prospect Union and the Social Union, men are assigned to these positions. The work done by a large number of men under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association, in teaching at the Chinese Sunday-school and conducting services at the Sailors' Mission and other missions, offers an opportunity for such work to those who wish it.

In April an intensely interesting and enthusiastic conference of all the workers was held at Professor Palmer's house.

Thus the future clergyman in a western city finds varied instruction as to what his native city needs, and the future lawyer finds legal work and problems, in the Associated Charities; the future teacher finds congenial and profitable experience with the Prospect Union classes or the Home Library groups; the future physician visits the sick child; and any man who looks forward to helping the unfortunate is enabled to make a good start, and add to the charm of his college days a bit of thought for somebody else.

GENEROUS GIFTS.—Mrs. Elizabeth G. Kelly, of Chicago, who has already endowed the University of Chicago with a woman's dormitory costing \$60,000, has decided to erect on the University campus a chapel to cost \$100,000, to be known as the Kelly Memorial Chapel, in memory of her brother. The University has no chapel.

The University of Chicago has also been favored by a gift of property and money amounting to about \$250,000. The giver is Mrs. T. K. W. Shimer, owner and principal of the Mount Carroll Female Seminary, of Mount Carroll, Ill. Mrs. Shimer writes President Harper that she gives to the University four buildings, comprising the Seminary, together with twenty-five acres of ground. It is her desire that the Seminary be run as a girls' training-school for the University, and to this end she will endow it with \$150,000, and probably \$200,000. Mount Carroll is 125 miles directly west of Chicago.

The University has already received another million-dollar gift. It came from Miss Helen Culver, of that city. Miss Culver, who is about sixty years old, is a niece of the late Charles J. Hull, from whom she inherited a fortune estimated at \$6,000,000. She was for some time a member of the Board of Trustees of the old University of Chicago. The conditions of her gift are that it shall be devoted to the increase of knowledge within the field of biological science. It is especially provided that the donation shall be applied in part to an inland experimental station and to a marine biological laboratory, and that a portion of the instruction supported by the gift shall take the form of University Extension Lectures to be delivered at suitable points on the west side of Chicago, the lectures to be as free from technicalities as possible.

TUSKEGEE CONFERENCE.—The Annual Tuskegee Negro Conference will open at Tuskegee, Ala., Wednesday, March 4.

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* * * * *

There is a small room in an upper floor of a busy mercantile house in St. Paul's Churchyard, London, that is closely connected with the history of the Young Men's Christian Association. More than fifty years ago the Association started with a band of twelve young men who had gathered for a meeting in this room. Two years ago, at the time of the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Association, its founder, Sir George Williams, was knighted by Queen Victoria. Sir George has now written for THE SUNDAY SCHOOL TIMES a very interesting sketch of the origin and marvelous growth of the Young Men's Christian Association, which, beginning with twelve members, now numbers more than half a million. The article appears in the issue for February 8.

A Pen-Picture of Egyptian Children is the attractive title of a bright sketch that appears in THE SUNDAY SCHOOL TIMES of February 1. Miss Thompson, who writes from Egypt, describes the every-day life of the youngsters of that far-away land, telling about their good times and hard times, how they study and how they play. Her article is illustrated with reproductions from photographs taken in Egypt, and is one of the series of articles that this periodical has been publishing, describing child life in many lands.

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